The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 17, 1902.

The Week.

Major Waller has been acquitted by the court-martial at Manila, though not unanimously. This can mean only that his defence was accepted. What was that defence? Why, that his shooting of helpless natives, without trial, was done in pursuance of direct orders from Gen. Smith. No denial of the facts was attempted. The men were shot down in cold blood. This was to outdo the Australian murderers in South Africa, who at least went through the pretence of a drum-head court-martial before slaughtering their Boer victims. But Major Waller testified, and in this he had the corroboration of three other officers of the United States, that what he had done was simply to carry out the orders of Gen. Smith, who had directed him to "kill everything over ten." We ourselves do not think this a justification. Major Waller might have thrown up his commission, or deliberately disobeyed such unlawful orders. No officer of the United States army is compelled to become a murderer at the word of command. But however that may be, the duty of putting Gen. Smith on trial is now immediate and imperative. If he gave the orders sworn to, and if a massacre of the innocent resulted, he is as truly a murderer as any man who ever mounted the gallows. The Administration has been forced to order a searching inquiry into the trial and into the tales of army cruelty with which the air is full. In Professor Worcester's book on the Philippines, there is an account of a Spanish expedition to Samar in 1649, to capture a revolted chief named Sumoroy. "They failed to take Sumoroy, but found his mother in a hut, and, *true to Spanish traditions*," adds the complacent American historian, "literally tore the defenceless old woman to pieces." In his next edition, Professor Worcester should have an honest foot-note to say that the villany which the Spanish taught us we executed, and even bettered their instructions, in that same island of Samar.

The existence of the water-cure torture in the Philippines was established on Monday beyond cavil. Before the Senate Committee on the Philippines two eye-witnesses of excellent character and standing told of the application of this inhuman torture to the Presidente of Igbaras in Panay on two successive days. The proceedings, it seems, were supervised by Capt. E. F. Glenn, Twenty-fifth Infantry, and Lieut. A. L. Conger, Eighteenth Infantry, regular army officers, and Dr. Lyons, a contract surgeon. The poor wretch was twice placed upon his back and the water forced down his throat. To hasten matters, and to add to his agony, a handful of salt was thrown into the water. "This," Sergeant Riley testified, "*had the desired effect*," and, as a result of the confession thus procured, the town was burned and the inhabitants turned adrift with nothing but the clothing on their backs. Whether the confession thus secured was the truth or not, no one knows, least of all Capt. Glenn and Lieut. Conger, for what human being could be blamed for rescuing himself from such fiendish treatment by framing any confession that his inquisitors demanded? Private Smith testified that he had witnessed the similar torture of two policemen by Capt. Glenn's directions. A "water-cure" detachment, he declared, was a feature of the organization of the Eighteenth United States Infantry—of that army which Secretary Root declares was moved only by "scrupulous regard for the rules of civilized warfare."

President Schurman contributes an article to the April number of *Gunton's Magazine* on "Philippine Fundamentals." The Philippine question is itself a fundamental one to the American republic, he thinks, being next in gravity among our national issues, past and present, to the slavery question. To discuss such a question he holds to be not merely the right of American citizens, but their solemn and bounden duty. If such discussion stirs up discontent among the Filipinos, even that is "infinitely preferable to our renunciation of free speech, of the sovereignty of public opinion, of government of the people, for the people, by the people, which is the soul and glory of our republic." Then he adds:

> "To attack or belittle popular government, to decry free speech and discussion by which it lives and acts, is to plunge the sword into our mother's bosom because the outgoings of her heart of charity render some remote ward too hopeful and independent to suit our temporary convenience."

Mr. Schurman tells us, further, that the Filipinos want their liberty. "You could not find in all the islands," he says, "a single Filipino who favors colonial dependence on the United States." This is the statement of the President of the first Philippine Commission on a question of fact. It is the unqualified statement of one who must be supposed to know more about the feelings and wishes of the inhabitants of the archipelago than anybody who has not been in the islands. In the latter category must be placed, first of all, Secretary Root. The list of distinguished Filipinos whose names the Secretary made public the other day as those of persons now reconciled to American rule must, if President Schurman is well informed, consist entirely of men who are willing to accept pay as members of the local government, but are no more reconciled to it than the Boers are to British rule in South Africa. And why should they be?

The President, after listening to all the charges and counter-charges affecting Messrs. Powderly, Fitchie, and McSweeney, and without expressing any opinion upon them, is said to have decided that a complete change should be made in the Immigration Bureau, and new men appointed to the places filled by all of them. It is said, further, that Powderly has resigned in response to the President's request, that Mr. Fitchie's term has expired, and that the Secretary of the Treasury is to ask for Mr. McSweeney's resignation and to appoint Mr. Joseph Murray in his place. Since this matter has a bearing upon the merit system as regulated by law, the Civil-Service Reform Association took cognizance of the facts at its regular monthly meeting last week. The office of Assistant Commissioner of Immigration is in the classified service, but it appears that the following order from the President, dated January 18, was filed with the Civil-Service Commission at that time:

> "An appointment to the vacancy now existing in the position of Assistant Commissioner of Immigration, Port of New York, may be made without examination under the civil-service laws."

It was ascertained that there are no specific charges against the present incumbent of this office, and also that he refuses to resign as long as vague and undefined charges are alleged against him, but is willing to resign if all such charges are withdrawn. The Association adopted a resolution saying that it had learned with regret that the office of Assistant Commissioner of Immigration had been withdrawn from the classified list of the civil service, and that it earnestly protested against such action.

Lieut.-Gen. Schofield gave some very valuable testimony before the Senate Military Committee, last week, in favor of Secretary Root's staff bill. Gen. Schofield was commander of the army from the death of Sheridan until his retirement in 1895, and is therefore in a position to speak with knowledge as to the desirability of abolishing the office of Commanding General, and substituting therefor a chief of staff. As was to be expected, he flatly contradicted Gen. Miles by declaring that the change contemplated was in every way desirable.

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He pointed out, what is known to every one familiar with the army, that the office of Commanding General has no warrant in law, and that it is absolutely without power. Gen. Miles cannot now order a company to move without the consent of the Secretary, or take any other action without permission except to issue verbose and ridiculous orders. In short, his office is purely ornamental and honorary, and as such would be distasteful to any man not eaten up with vanity and love of show. Gen. Schofield declared that the personal relations between the President, Secretary of War, and senior general were far more important than any law, and dwelt upon the great necessity for harmony between them. This is another sad blow at Gen. Miles, who lacked the confidence of Presidents Cleveland and McKinley, as he now lacks that of President Roosevelt. Gen. Merritt testified that he approved of everything that Gen. Schofield had said, and that he believed every change suggested in Secretary Root's various bills made for the improvement of the army—a "vast improvement," Gen. Schofield called it. Neither of these veterans saw any signs of that "Russianization or Germanification" which fills Gen. Miles with such awful forebodings, Gen. Schofield going so far as to say that he hoped the army would be "Germanized," for the German army is in his opinion the "very best in the world." It is therefore not surprising to hear that the outlook for Mr. Root's legislation is very much better than before. But where does all this leave Gen. Miles?

That the present price of beef is wholly abnormal is generally admitted, and the fact is commonly attributed to the activities of a meat Trust composed of the six greatest packing-houses. This suspicion is credible enough to set the Attorney-General's office investigating the present condition of the meat trade, with the intention of thwarting a possible conspiracy to keep up prices. It is certain that, under the Anti-Trust and Interstate Commerce Laws, an injunction would lie against the parties to such a combination, while, under certain circumstances, a criminal action might be brought. Representative McDermott's resolution to remove the duty on meat strikes, however, at the root of the matter. Here is a remedy which would spare us the tedious delays of investigation and of litigation—a remedy, too, which works automatically; for if the high price of meat is due, as is alleged, to a general scarcity of cattle, the admission of dressed meat, and cattle on the hoof, free will not appreciably lower the price, while if the present suspiciously high prices are due to the fact that certain great packing-houses maintain a virtual monopoly in their allotted territory, the free entry of meat products will soon bring prices to the normal level. It should be remembered, too, that the total importation of meat products can never be large enough to demoralize the market, and that, accordingly, the present duty of two cents a pound is largely nominal. Large importations are possible only under the stimulus of the most alluring prices. It is unlikely that Congress, which shudders at the mere thought of "opening the tariff," will so much as consider Mr. McDermott's resolution. The chances are that the investigation of the whole matter will pursue the usual roundabout way to a futile conclusion, while all the time the Beef Trust is presumably taking it out of the retail dealer and the consumer. The possible sources of an additional meat supply are Canada and Mexico. Any opening of the tariff door should include all substitutes for meat, such as poultry, fish, and game.

Gen. Wade Hampton's death points as sharp a contrast as was ever witnessed in the career of a public man in this country. It is not simply that he had dropped out of active connection with affairs; for this his age would sufficiently account. Gen. Hampton was a type of the public man who had always controlled the fortunes of his State, except during the reconstruction era; and what is remarkable is that his whole class has, during the past decade, disappeared from South Carolina, so far as influence is concerned, almost as though it had been swept from the face of the earth. The old régime of which he was so characteristic a part is now only a memory in his State, and new standards are represented by new men. The rise to power of Tillman was responsible for this latest attempt at a social equilibrium in the South. About the same time, North Carolina was shaken to its foundations by an uprising which dethroned the ruling class, and put in their places men who would never have been thought of for judges, Representatives in Congress, or United States Senators in the old days. However unlovely the results of these overturns, they represent the passing, among the whites, of the last vestiges of the old artificial slaveholding aristocracy.

Close on the heels of Gov. Odell's signing the new anti-anarchy law comes a decision of the Appellate Division sustaining the efficiency of the old statutes. John Most had called on adherents of anarchy "to execute judgment" by killing, "through blood and iron and poison and dynamite," the heads of nations. Under section 675 of the Penal Code, which punishes as a misdemeanor "any act which seriously disturbs or endangers the public peace or health," he was sentenced to imprisonment for a year. This sentence is now reaffirmed. Unless some flaw is discovered by the Court of Appeals, the practical effect of the decision will be to render the new law superfluous, except in the one point of making such an offence as Most's a felony, instead of a misdemeanor. But, as we have more than once pointed out, there is no evidence that a severer penalty will have the slightest effect in checking anarchistic utterances. If an anarchist will run the risk of a year in prison for the sake of freeing his mind, he will quite as cheerfully run the risk of three years or five. Indeed, the extreme of punishment may give him the chance of his life to pose as a martyr before his fellows, and inflame their excitable souls to fiercer zeal for crime.

It is very likely that the Salisbury Government will not seriously press the Educational Bill at this session of Parliament, but the proposed act is of considerable interest, as showing the English official attitude towards popular education. It should be recalled that primary schools in England are managed either by elected school boards or by the directors of voluntary schools. These latter are under ecclesiastical (usually Church of England) control, and have a per-capita subsidy. Board schools are practically under Nonconformist management, and are entirely supported by public rates, but no board school is established except in localities where the central Board of Education decides that the existing educational facilities are insufficient. The new Education Bill proposes to abolish all of the school boards, vesting complete control of the schools in the county and municipal councils—bodies which are partly elective and partly appointive. These councils may, when they so desire, assume control both of the board schools and of the voluntary schools. Both classes of institutions are to be supported by taxation, but the private or voluntary schools will be obliged to keep up their buildings from their own resources. Over the board schools the county and municipal councils will exercise complete control; over the voluntary schools, the right of supervision of studies and of scrutiny of the appointment of teachers. These same councils may organize a system of public secondary education—now quite lacking in England—for which, however, no programme is vouchsafed by the Ministry. The City of London, where the School Board system is firmly established, is excepted from the operation of the law.

Americans will find it difficult to look with any patience upon a project which makes private schools under ecclesiastical control a favored class, yet the charge that the bill is a "Bishop's bill" sounds less grave in England, where the Established Church still includes a majority of the population and has recognized politi-

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cal functions. Where the scheme seems inherently weak is in conferring supreme educational authority upon bodies which are constituted for quite other purposes, in leaving it open for the county and municipal councils to refuse such authority if they see fit, and in failing to indicate the lines along which public secondary education is to be organized. The bill, too, disregards utterly the historic fact that the establishment of compulsory primary education in England was a product of the movement which, in the early seventies, found expression in the school boards. It is hard to believe that in a single generation these bodies, which alone represent public education as Americans understand it, can have wholly outlived their usefulness. The bill very largely commits the small control which Parliament now exercises over the schools to the local councils. The measure suggests that the Ministry is willing to shift an unwelcome burden upon the first broad back—not Nonconformist—which offers. This will be more clearly seen as the debate proceeds. It is always possible that Mr. Balfour is about as zealous for the Education Bill as Mr. Chamberlain is for old-age pensions—and no more. Hereupon, even the friendly *Times* put in the word of warning that, "if the Government do not mean to carry their bill, they had better not have introduced it."

The huge and steadily mounting cost of the Boer war can best be displayed by reference to the successive votes demanded of Parliament. The first one dates from October 20, 1899, when £10,000,000 was asked. The Secretary for War spoke of this as a "prudent" estimate of a "superior limit"; and the Chancellor of the Exchequer, while cautiously admitting that it was "possible that these estimates may be exceeded," assured the Commons that they had been framed with the "utmost possible accuracy and care," and said he saw "no reason" why the war might not be brought to a "successful termination" for the sum which Parliament was asked to grant. But Magersfontein and Colenso soon put an end to those dreams. By February 12, 1900, it was necessary to ask for £13,000,000, and by the 5th of March following £37,797,000 additional became necessary. Later came the demands of July 27, 1900, for £8,500,000, of December 11 for £15,500,000, of February 28, 1901, for £3,000,000, and, finally, of March 8, 1901, for £56,070,000. Here is a snug little total of more than $700,000,000, besides what Sir Michael has to ask for this year. But even this sum does not represent the total outlay incurred in subduing the two Boer republics, since a skilled accountant has shown in the *Fortnightly* that the cost of floating loans, supplementary estimates, annuities, and minor expenses, directly chargeable to the war, would foot up something like $150,000,000 more.

That no picturesque element should be lacking to the burial of Cecil Rhodes, Mr. Kipling has written for the event a poem in very nearly his best vein. The audacity which chooses as a burial place the solid granite top of a hill called "the view of the world," which plans a railway for future pilgrims to the tomb, provides a fortune for the maintenance of a last resting-place, and admits no companionship except of those who have deserved well of the Empire—such audacity of self-confidence finds few parallels in the world's history, and is of a kind to stagger all observers who are removed from the immediate impression of the event itself. Whether Mr. Rhodes rightly estimated himself in the light of posterity is necessarily doubtful. That he fairly estimated his relation to his contemporaries in South Africa is shown by the absence of criticism of his grandiose plan for the perpetuation of his own memory. It seems to occur to no one that conspicuous burial is usually conferred by others. The Duke of Wellington and Grant needed to make no provision for tomb or monument. The most striking parallel to the burial of Mr. Rhodes is in the old English epic of Beowulf. After the hero lies stricken he bids his comrades bury him on a great headland, "so that the goers in ships, seeing it from afar, may call it Beowulf's beorh." This may suggest that, whether in his personal emotions or in his policies, Mr. Rhodes, the chief promoter of syndicated politics, was in many respects a very primitive type, partaking of the generous virtues and of the unabashed vices and puerilities of the heroic age.

The recent Socialist Congress at Brussels has left a formidable train of strikes and riots. The presence of a number of manufacturing centres closely packed together facilitates the spread of a riotous movement. One feels that a genuine industrial revolt could not be isolated in Belgium, as such movements have been even in a country as small as England. On the other hand, the very compactness of the country, and the corresponding perfection of the Socialist organization, make it easy to bring pressure to bear upon the Government, and render it always probable that serious grievances will receive prompt relief from Parliament. The ostensible cause of the present disorders, and of the insults to the King on his return to Brussels, is simply the demand for universal suffrage. The highly artificial electoral system of the country does in fact invite criticism. The plural ballot is an offence to the growing democratic feeling of the country. It will be recalled that, while every citizen over twenty-five years of age, and not legally disqualified, has a single vote, those who have real estate valued at 2,000 francs, or an annual income of not less than 100 francs from real estate or Government bonds, have two votes. To this class also belong married men or widowers thirty-five years of age, having legitimate issue, and paying a house tax of 5 francs a year. Such citizens as have received a certificate of higher instruction, have filled public offices, or engaged in the practice of the learned professions, have three votes. In 1897-8 there were, under this system, 1,418,480 voters, and a half more votes—2,175,957. It is the one-vote people who now are agitating for a "one-man, one-vote" plan.

The recent course of legislation and discussion in Australia is likely to clear up, once for all, certain economic problems—such as, Can the state effectually define a day's work and prescribe a living wage? The Democratic (Labor) party is, if not in a majority, in virtual control of Parliament. The eight-hour working day is to be the law of the land, while compulsory conciliation boards are to have plenary power to adjust all disputes as to wages and condition of employment between employers and employed. It remains to fix the living wage, and it is reasonably certain that it will be set at six shillings or seven shillings a day. When this law is passed, Australia will have done practically everything—short of the nationalization of the means of production—which a state can do to regulate the relations of capital and labor. What no Parliament can do is to force an employer to pay men the living wage when he would do so at a loss. As it will stand in Australia, an employer of labor who cannot afford to pay his men the six or seven-shilling wage cannot offer them four or five shillings. He will have the option only of paying them the legal rate or of discharging them incontinently. In time of industrial depression there will be thousands of laborers not badly paid, but not paid at all, by reason of the law passed for their protection. That this contingency has been foreseen is shown by the practice of New South Wales, which engages to find employment upon public work, at seven shillings a day, for all laborers out of work. Already the pressure upon the Government makes itself felt, and this expedient, too, can be of avail only in relatively prosperous times. To spend the people's money in giving the people an artificial wage is a kind of boot-strap levitation which cannot work even in Australia. Incidentally, the living-wage theory strikes directly at industries like pearl-fishing and sugar-growing, which are necessarily conducted by cheap native labor. All in all, it is difficult to see how the Australian labor laws can weather the shock of bad times.

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THE SUPPRESSED PHILIPPINE REPORTS.

Secretary Root and Governor Taft come very badly out of this affair of keeping back vital information from Congress. The reports withheld are terribly damaging, but the fact of withholding them is almost more damaging. It is not simply that it argues a lack of candor—it is very nearly a breach of faith, a violation of the implied contract between the Administration, on the one hand, and Congress and the people on the other. In a word, Mr. Root goes to Congress, and appeals to it and to the country in behalf of a certain Philippine policy, and then he keeps under lock and key an official document which shows that that whole policy is tumbling like a house of cards. No wonder that Imperialists are stricken dumb by this revelation. Their boasted eagle of empire, flying in the eye of the sun, is suddenly discovered to be a very silly specimen of ostrich, hiding its foolish head in the sand, and thinking that its fairly conspicuous posteriors are therefore invisible.

Mr. Root is greatly mistaken if he thinks that the airs of a Russian bureaucrat are in place, or will be tolerated, in the conduct of his Department. It is not for him to decide what information it is advisable for the American people to be allowed to have, in making up their minds on this whole question. They say to him, in the language which Burke addressed to an arrogant Minister of his day, "Information is an advantage to us; and we have a right to demand it." Nor need he imagine that he can fall back on the excuse for concealment which Dundas gave to Parliament—that the matter is of "a delicate nature," and that "the state will suffer detriment by the exposure." Mr. Root will remember how Burke shattered that plea. In words which read as if prophetically fitted to the case of the Philippines, as well as to that of India, he exclaimed:

> "A government has been fabricated for that great province; the right honorable gentleman says that, therefore, you ought not to examine into his conduct. Heavens, what an argument is this! Then we are only to examine into the conduct of those who have no conduct to account for. . . . The better part of the proposed establishment was in the *publicity* of its proceedings, in its *perpetual responsibility to Parliament*. Without this check, what is our government at home? But if the scene on the *other side of the globe*, which *tempts, invites, almost compels to tyranny and rapine*, be not inspected with the eye of a severe and unremitting vigilance, *shame and destruction must ensue*."

We are not arguing for the indiscriminate blabbing of military secrets. If Secretary Root thought that those parts of Major Gardener's report which reflected directly on officers of the army ought to be investigated before being made public, he might have kept them back for a time with propriety. But the burden of the report is quite other. It is the contribution of an able and conscientious officer to the large question of Philippine government. Is the present policy the correct one? Is it working well? Ought it to be changed? To all these queries Major Gardener's report gives the most pertinent and significant answers. Nothing so telling and strategic has been brought out by any witness before the Philippine Committee. The document is one which should have been instantly turned over to that committee of inquiry, and given to every American to read and ponder. But what was done with it? Why, Governor Taft concealed it, Secretary Root pigeon-holed it, and nothing but the indiscretion of General Miles gave the public a hint that such a tell-tale report was in existence. This is, to our mind, almost an impeachable offence. It is to treat Congress and the people with contempt. It casts inevitable suspicion on every statement of the case that Secretary Root may make. What cards is he still keeping under the table? General Miles, we note, spoke of "other communications" withheld, as well as the Gardener report. What are they, Mr. Secretary? This fatherly little way of treating us all as children, and doling out only information which is "good" for us, cannot be pursued much longer. Mr. Root had better volunteer his documents, instead of waiting to be further humiliated by having them dragged out of him by Congress.

The one report which has been reluctantly given to the public is, as we have said, a simply crushing arraignment of the course which the Administration has been following in the Philippines. Governor Taft has denied that there was any appreciable friction between the military and civil authorities. What says Major Gardener? Why, that the attitude of the army is "decidedly hostile," even "intensely so among the higher officers," to all forms of "civil government in these islands." The work of Governor Taft's Commission, he adds, is "openly ridiculed" by the soldiers; and when "outrages" are "committed by officers and soldiers in an organized municipality and province," they are "often not punished." This is bad enough, without taking into account the Major's reference to "the torturing of natives by so-called water-cure and other methods," as if those things were a well-known part of army procedure.

What strikes us most in Major Gardener's report is the humane and statesmanlike note of it. He speaks with fine disdain of the notion that it is "weakness" to treat a Filipino justly or kindly, having proved the contrary in his own experience; and his testimony as to the people of his province of Tayabas —namely, that they are "in every way superior in education, intelligence, morals, and civilization" to the Mexicans and Cubans, whom he has known intimately—is in line with much other evidence by our own officers, and puts the fitting brand upon the barbaric and bloodthirsty ravings of men like Funston, who prate about the need of killing half the "niggers" in order to make the rest afraid of us. It is precisely this cruel and overbearing course which is, Major Gardener reports, "sowing the seeds for a perpetual revolution against us hereafter," and making of the Filipinos our "permanent enemies." As it is, he declares that the political situation in his province—one of the richest and most intelligent—is "slowly retrograding," and that "American sentiment is decreasing." It is not strange that Governor Taft, prophet of smooth things, thought this report one which it would be highly inconvenient to publish.

Major Gardener's report ought to make every American indignant, but perhaps the chief part of the indignation should be directed against the authorities for trying to conceal it. This honest officer reported what he felt in duty bound to lay before his "civil superiors," in order that they might be "able intelligently to order what the situation demands." Who are these civil superiors? Governor Taft, Secretary Root, President Roosevelt. But are they supreme? Do they recognize no superiors? Are they so drunk with this new wine of Imperialism that they complacently think they can settle all these things in their own private conclaves, and keep Congress and the American people in the dark?

THE PHILIPPINE MONEY QUESTION.

The currency situation in the Philippines presents some features of peculiar interest, for it brings the United States face to face with problems similar to those which have for many years tasked the wits of English statesmen dealing with imperial problems in the East. The problem presented to us is that of reconciling two currency systems which are necessarily in conflict. Philippine currency, like Philippine diet and clothing, has been unlike our own; and differences of this kind offer substantial obstacles to any process of "benevolent assimilation." Because of previous and existing relations to other Oriental countries, the Philippines are now dependent in mercantile transactions mainly upon the Mexican silver dollar—in other words, are upon a silver basis. For internal trade or for business with China this dollar has, under ordinary conditions, been fairly satisfactory; but recent events have demonstrated the unwisdom of relying upon a coinage which cannot be regulated—even by the laws of supply and demand—to meet the changing needs of Oriental trade. Furthermore, with the urgent need of establishing sound fiscal relations between the Philippine Government and our own, it has become evident that there must be some

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coördination between the Philippine currency system and that of the United States. There is, then, obviously great danger that any projected currency system will either fail to meet the local needs, or will lack the gold basis which is essential to link it to our own monetary system.

Two plans are under discussion in Congress. The House Committee on Insular Affairs has adopted that of Mr. Charles A. Conant, who, in his report to the Secretary of War upon the coinage in the Philippines, has proposed to issue, on Government account, a distinctive Philippine coin, the peso, to contain about 43½ cents' worth of silver and to be legal tender for fifty cents in the gold money of the United States. Such a token coin must obviously be limited in quantity, if its value is to be maintained; but, in order to give it a wide circulation, which must depend on securing for it the confidence of the people, Mr. Conant proposes that this, with the gold money of the United States, shall be the only legal tender, and shall be redeemed in gold, at the discretion of the Government, from a reserve held for that purpose. In this way, according to Mr. Conant, foreign coins will be largely driven from the islands, leaving a comparatively clear field for this silver token coinage, referable to the gold standard. Thus the Filipinos will have a coinage adapted to their peculiar conditions, while the financial relations of the Government and the mercantile community to the gold-standard countries of the world will be made perfectly simple and sound.

The feasibility of this scheme depends upon the effectiveness in meeting two, and only two, general conditions: (1) the new coins must be acceptable to the people; (2) the Government must be able to control the supply.

The coins apparently would be readily received—judging by the ease with which the Bombay dollar has passed into circulation in the East—for local use; but they would obstruct to some extent the trade between the Philippines and those countries which continued to use silver, *i. e.*, China and the Straits Settlements. Adherence to either standard implies, of course, difficulty in trading with those countries which choose the other standard. As it appears that even now the trade of the Philippines is most largely with gold-standard countries, the change would be for the benefit of the more important part of the Philippine commerce.

(2.) Whether the Government would continuously have and properly exercise the power to control the supply, and thus to regulate the value, of the silver coins is a much more difficult question. Under Mr. Conant's scheme, the coinage pays a seigniorage of about 15 per cent., which is to be retained as a gold fund available for the redemption of the silver coins. This amount of seigniorage is regarded as the lowest percentage which would guard against any possible rise in the value of silver that could send the coins to the melting-pot; and, at the same time, it is thought to be the highest percentage which may be taken without leading to counterfeiting. Accordingly, this fund of 15 per cent. is provided at the outset, on the assumption that it would be adequate for meeting ordinary demands; and, in addition, power is to be granted to procure additional supplies of gold when needed for maintaining the parity of the silver coins. The Government, however, is to be vested with discretionary power to refuse to redeem silver with gold.

This is the critical point in Mr. Conant's plan. It presupposes the application to the Philippine money question of a higher intelligence than we have usually bestowed upon the same class of questions at home. It requires, also, the highest character on the part of the officials placed in charge of the mint and the redemption bureau. The men intrusted with these duties will be far from the scrutinizing gaze of the only public opinion they fear or care for. They will be appointed under the régime of party politics, and there is no certainty that they will be superior in morale to Neely, Reeves, and Rathbone. Yet, with all these drawbacks, this plan is to be preferred to that of the silver standard favored by the Senate Philippines Committee. By following the example of British India, the Philippine currency can be safely anchored on the gold standard within a few years, whereas, if the present opportunity is neglected, the country will be tied to China, in a monetary sense, for an indefinite time to come.

THE CHINESE EXCLUSION BILL.

We characterized as "a deliberate sacrifice of self-respect and plighted faith at the behest of low demagogism," the Chinese Exclusion Law of May, 1892. We see no reason now to apply any other language to the Exclusion Bill which has passed the House and to that which is now before the Senate. Both measures practically reënact all the existing exclusion laws, and extend them to the Philippines and our other "colonies." They not only incorporate the existing Treasury regulations, but go a step further than any previous law in the harassing restrictions and obligations which they place upon all Chinese resident within the territory of the United States. It is true that there is perhaps nothing so deliberately insulting in this bill as the clause at one time approved by the House in 1892, to the effect that Chinese desiring to attend the World's Fair at Chicago might do so *under guard*—with shackles and leg-chains, we presume. But the present bills are none the less outrageous in their general tenor and in their utter disregard of solemn treaty obligations, and of a treaty, moreover, which will not expire until 1904. Fortunately for the good name of the House, its bill did not go through without some protests. As in 1892, Representative Hitt of Illinois spoke out against such legislation, and Mr. Cannon was among those who opposed some of the amendments.

In the Senate Mr. Cullom, Mr. Hoar, and others have vigorously protested against the passage of the pending bill, which is practically the same as the House measure. Mr. Cullom is himself in favor of Chinese exclusion, but the drastic provisions of the proposed law are more than he can stomach. "There is," says the Chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, "nothing in the present situation that makes it either expedient or necessary to pass a law in disregard of our treaty with China." He wishes to continue the present laws until the treaty of 1894 shall expire, and to negotiate a new agreement with China in the meantime. He also points out that, as the present treaty forbids the entrance of Chinese laborers, it would make no difference whatever if Congress should fail to pass any new law until 1904. That the United States Senate should entertain a bill which would make every honest student and teacher from a friendly nation liable to sentence to jail, to deportation, or to branding as a criminal, seems incredible. Yet such treatment is one of the reasons which Senator Cullom gives for his opposition to the bill as it is now drawn.

There are plenty of other iniquitous provisions to arouse the antagonism of Senator Cullom, or of any man not blinded by politics or by racial prejudice. For instance, this bill repeats the old insulting provision that witnesses for a Chinaman must be "other than Chinese," or, as it used to read, "two white men." It also prohibits the entrance into the United States of Chinamen from our insular possessions. What is more, the bill applies not only to full-blooded Chinese, but to men and women of mixed blood as well. That is, the son of an American or a Frenchman or a Russian and of a woman of China may not enter this country with the desire to earn an honest living, either as a skilled or an unskilled laborer. In this respect, as in several others, the bill brings to mind the conditions in this country at the time of the Fugitive Slave Law. Photography was not in use in slavery days for such purposes, but its modern development has led our lawmakers to require that every Chinaman shall attach a picture of himself to the certificate of residence which he must take out within six months after the passage of the bill by Congress. As if he were a leper or an outlaw, our patient Chinaman must have inscribed upon this certificate his

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"age, height, and *all physical peculiarities.*"

Not content with thus making every Chinaman legally a marked man in every community, without regard to individual character or standing, the bill requires that the Commissioner-General of Immigration shall make a complete record of the date, place, and circumstances of birth of every Chinaman, that his movements may be traced more easily. This is in line with the rogues' galleries in our large cities, and suggests at once the methods by which the European secret police follow up men whose political beliefs are at variance with those of the reigning governments. A similar procedure has been advocated, in and out of Congress, in the case of anarchists, as a result of the assassination of President McKinley. The anarchist has, however, one advantage over the Chinaman, in that nature has not stamped him as one apart from our own people. But though the Chinaman is not known to contemplate the murder of kings and presidents, or the overthrow of all governments, and is generally thought to be peculiarly law-abiding, the bill which Congress is about to pass marks him as one to be despised, shunned, hounded, and persecuted in excess of the anarchist. As for penalties for those who aid Chinamen to enter the country illegally, the bill abounds in them. Train conductors, masters of vessels, their officers and crews, employees of railroads, and drivers of carts will all render themselves liable to conviction for felony and fines of not less than one thousand nor more than five thousand dollars and imprisonment for not less than one year if they aid, abet, or "*through neglect permit*" the escape of any Chinaman "held in detention."

These are but a few of the features of this extraordinary measure against which Senator Hoar spoke so eloquently on Thursday, but they suffice to show its general character and the absurdity of many of its provisions, of which none is more impractical than that which requires the photographing of every one of the 50,000 Chinese in the Philippines. From water to vinegar, from vinegar to cayenne pepper, and now to vitriol—this was Senator Hoar's description of our Chinese legislation, passed at the behest of labor agitators and professional politicians.

BRITISH FREE TRADE.

We need not wonder that the proposal of the British Chancellor of the Exchequer to put taxes on imported grain and flour has been received with a burst of indignation at home, accompanied with jeers and taunts from abroad. It brings before us one of the most exciting contests of the past—one of the most notable pages of English history—the battle fought by the Anti-Corn Law League for cheap bread for the British workman. The names of Cobden and Bright, Peel and Disraeli, Derby and Bentinck, Fonblanque and Thompson, and a host of lesser lights rise among the memories of 1846, when the free-traders finally gained an overwhelming victory. Is it possible that England has gone back to the protective theory which she abandoned more than half a century ago?

Of course the advocates of protection, both at home and abroad, will say yes. Already they are rolling Sir Michael's budget as a sweet morsel under their tongues, and they will make every possible use of it in future contests for the adjustment of taxation. The fact must be recognized, however, that England is under the dire necessity of taxing everything that she can lay her hands on. It is not a question of protection or free trade that confronts the party in power, but a question of life or death to the Salisbury Government. They brought on the Boer war, and they must foot the bills. The cost has now mounted up to nearly a billion dollars, and the total expenses of the Government for the present year are $800,000,000. What is to be done? asks the bewildered Chancellor. Tax everything in sight. But everything except bread had already been taxed to the utmost limit before; tobacco, wine, spirits, tea, even coal, had had the last farthing squeezed out of them. Sir Michael had stoutly resisted the Tory demand for a bread tax. He had approved himself a worthy disciple and follower of Robert Peel; but, alas, necessity knows no law. The deficit yawning before him must be filled.

It is not quite fair, therefore, to say that Sir Michael has abandoned the principles of free trade. It might be said in like manner that Chairman Payne and Gen. Grosvenor have abandoned the doctrine of protection in having agreed to admit Cuban sugar at a reduced duty, because they have yielded to a necessity, or what they consider such. But in both cases the consequences of what is being done are of more importance than the motives of the doers. The bread tax in England is called temporary by its promoters, but who knows what its duration may be? Who can say what it may lead to? If this is a protective duty in its effect, then no matter what its aims may be—no matter what the motives of Ministers may be—it will lead to demands for other protective duties. First of all, we may expect demands for differential duties in favor of the colonies—that is, that the tax on Canadian wheat, for example, shall be something less than on United States or Argentine wheat. It will be very hard to resist this demand, since Canada already has a differential in favor of English goods—a discrimination, however, which England never asked for and rather deprecated. It will be harder for Sir Michael to resist this demand since Mr. Chamberlain has long been in favor of it. It is a part of his scheme for Imperial federation. But if Sir Michael consents to differential duties in favor of the colonies, he abandons free trade outright. He throws down the bars to every claimant for protection. He goes back to the days of the Anti-Corn Law League. Considering the powerful and growing competition that weighs upon British manufacturing industry, it is a question whether the proposed bread tax may not be the last straw on the camel's back; and when the Chancellor looks at the possibilities of taxes on raw materials yet to come, he may well recoil from the prospect.

Of course, the Liberal party will not miss this opportunity to find an issue with which to pull itself together and to oust the Conservatives. Sir William Harcourt has already given notice of his opposition to the bread tax, and the *Daily News* has sounded a trumpet blast against it. The progress of this Parliamentary battle will be watched in other parts of the world with interest as intense as any part of the Boer war from its beginning to the present time.

THE FORTUNES OF HOME RULE.

DUBLIN, March 22, 1902.

After ten years of disunion consequent on the Parnell split, the country has again pulled itself together; but there are no signs that the masses of the population will ever again, in our time at least, be so profoundly stirred by common hopes towards common ends as they were in the days of Repeal and of the Land League. For one thing, emigration has drained off that half of the population in which the seeds of discontent found most congenial soil; for another, the gospel of trades-unionism rather than political belief has taken firm hold on the artisan class, grievances in many directions have been removed, and disestablishment of the Church, instead of inclining Protestants towards Irish ideas, appears to have attached them more firmly than ever to the English interest.

Some £25,000 has within the past eighteen months been subscribed, largely in small sums, towards the support of a renewed national movement. Such fund, in addition to what it is now hoped may be received from the United States and elsewhere, is likely to be kept replenished. The spectacle of four-fifths of the Parliamentary representation in favor of Home Rule steadily maintained, in the face of all differences, through the past twenty-five years still exists. The impressiveness of this protest is considerably weakened by the degree to which, in Ireland, political opinion, as expressed on the platform and in the columns of the national press, appears to stand apart from that expressed in the daily lives of the people. In ordinary intercourse it is shown only in so far as is consistent with material interests. A stranger visiting Ireland sees little of it. Distinctive Irish opinion in shop windows and otherwise is no more to be remarked than in England. The portraits of Mr. Redmond or Mr. Dillon are not to be seen at the photographers'. Even in back

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streets and poor shops the glories of the British arms are displayed; and the children of artisans of the better classes go about with "H. M. S. *Revenge*" or "H. M. S. *Bulldog*" upon their hat-bands. It would not be easy to meet a hotel proprietor, driver, or guide who, without having first discerned Home Rule proclivities in a tourist, would acknowledge Nationalist sympathies in himself, or the existence of general interest on the subject in the country. The Irish members are honorably distinguished by absence of self-seeking on their own account. I can think of but one who, in the course of the past twenty-five years, has sold himself to Government. But on general behalf of constituents in desires concerning quartering of troops, Government contracts, chaplaincies, and treatment of Irish soldiers and officers, there is shown little widespread determination to maintain, where personal or money interests are engaged, stern protest against British rule and British misdoings.

On the general surface of affairs in Ireland, there is apparent little of that attitude we are accustomed to associate with a people profoundly dissatisfied with the institutions under which they live. Perhaps similar inconsistency was to be remarked at crises in the history of other countries. The Irish struggle is, however, perhaps one of the longest of its kind recorded in history, and it is to be feared that the unheroic and spasmodic lines upon which it is maintained may have a permanently deleterious effect upon the character of the people. Their naturally amiable and facile disposition works against their success. In the long run, few in Ireland suffer in mind, body, or estate from their most virulent opposition to national desires; while little is forgiven on the other side. In large towns and business centres a man has everything to lose and little to gain through being a Nationalist. This state of things is partly to be accounted for by the extent to which the well-paid Government official element permeates and influences all sections of society, from the highest to the lowest. As the general population of the country has declined, the bureaucracy has increased in proportion and numbers, and has, through open competition, been recruited from all grades. From the lawyers down to the policemen and the boys and girls on probation in the postal service, they and their near connections are under Government control and surveillance, and cannot call their political souls their own. I know an instance of a man losing a lucrative Government post through having subscribed ten shillings to a Boer ambulance fund. In few countries in the world is the governmental control of the purse more astutely and consistently exercised in stifling or directing public opinion.

In comparing the force of the Irish movement with what it was formerly, we must realize that the Protestant element therein is less and less apparent. It remains to be proved whether Mr. Russell will be able to marshal the agricultural section of it into effective union for land reform, and whether, if successful in that direction, it will have learned to cast away its fear of the mass of its Catholic countrymen, and to sympathize with their political aspirations. The Catholic clergy have withdrawn their countenance to a considerable extent from the agrarian and to a lesser extent from the Home Rule agitation. The university question settled, it is doubtful whether they would desire further radical change. The liquor influence in politics has become more and more powerful and more selfish. It has been strong enough to oust from political life in Ireland some of the men, Catholics and Protestants, whose services on purely national grounds it would have been most desirable to retain. Some of the least worthy representatives owe their seats to publican influence.

A backwash to the political movement has developed from an unexpected quarter —the preservation and study of the Irish language. Strange as it may appear, the Gaelic League is, from certain points of view, being run in opposition to the United Irish League. From small beginnings six years ago, it has attained to widespread influence. Ireland, perhaps influenced by the extent to which ceremony holds place in the church of the majority, delights in political ceremony and procession. Last Sunday the Gaelic League made a display in the streets of Dublin which, for orderliness, character, and numbers, has rarely been equalled. Some years must elapse before we can really judge as to the extent to which this League will forward the general use of Irish. Appearances are at present in its favor. Where formerly nothing was heard of the language, weekly and monthly journals circulate, and columns in the *Freeman* and other daily and weekly papers are devoted to it. Scarcely a week passes that some new work in Irish or some new aid to study is not to be found on booksellers' counters. The language is in evidence as it never was before. It is being studied to their advantage by thousands who would never have applied themselves to the acquisition of any other tongue.

The motto of the movement is "Sinn fein, sinn fein amain"—Our own, our own alone. Doubtless it owes much of its strength and popularity to its being a safe and respectable outlet for Irish feeling, free, to the young official and other classes, from the suspicion of disloyalty. It dare not openly oppose the national movement, it owes part of its power and influence to dependence upon it; but upon the whole it is, as I have said, being run upon lines in opposition to older national ones. It preaches the doctrine that language more than separate political institutions forms the basis of distinctive nationality, and that Irish national movements from the days of Swift have been mistaken in that they sought to follow English rather than Irish ideals. (We are not informed as to the peculiarly Irish ideals in government that we should strive after.) Grattan, O'Connell, and Parnell are no longer to be regarded as prime heroes. "We actually have in our possession a great treasure, more valuable than any of the things which the power of England has taken from us, which ought to be guarded more jealously than fortress or river, viz., national language." If this movement should result in breaking the continuity of national thought, and in intercepting for a generation youthful sympathy from old ideals, more damage would be done to the cause of political nationality than could be accomplished by many Chamberlains; and failures and disappointment have made apparent in the country an unwonted spirit of cynicism in public affairs. This is especially voiced in the *Leader*, a weekly journal that has attained wide circulation among all classes. Talk about Home Rule is declared to be all *Rameis* (shadows), sympathy with the Boers unreal; the politicians are "surfaces"; the only objects worthy real pursuit by Irishmen are the use of the Irish language and Irish manufactures, the revival of Irish manners and customs and Irish ways of thought. In addition to these themes is to be noted much admirable denunciation of drinking usages and of the influence of the liquor interest.

E pur si muove. Home Rule still holds the field here, and even on the other side of the Channel, as a solution of the Irish difficulty. That it does so is largely due to the blindness of the Government itself. Were it content to spend, in buying out the Irish landlords, one-fourth the sum it has already lavished upon the South African war; did it not find it necessary to support the doings of Dublin Castle through thick and thin, to keep men like Judge O'Connor Morris on the bench, and to justify every police outrage, the path of the Home Ruler would be more clouded than it is at present. D. B.

MADAME RÉCAMIER.—II.

PARIS, March 26, 1902.

At the end of the Directory and during the Consulate, Madame Récamier had not yet distinctly attached herself to any political party. France was passing through a period of rapid transformation. The familiar society of Madame Récamier was a sort of mirror of this transformation; new names were mixed up with old names; the Montmorencys met Gen. Murat, Madame Murat and Madame Bacciocchi, the sisters of the First Consul, Eugène de Beauharnais, his step-son. Madame Récamier was anxious to count Gen. Bonaparte in her court, and made advances to Lucien Bonaparte. Lucien, from humble beginnings, had become a member of the Cinq-Cents, and, after the 18th Brumaire, had been appointed Minister of the Interior. He was only twenty-five years old. Without being as handsome as his brother, the First Consul, he had good features; he was extremely vain, and while he conceded to his brother superiority in military matters, he intimated that in political matters he was himself inferior to nobody. He affected to be a sort of Don Juan, and he wished for a moment to put Madame Récamier on his list of the "due mille." She deceived him by her amiable manners, but if she was a coquette, she was nothing more. Madame de Boigne, who knew her well, says even that "the term coquette does not exactly suit Madame Récamier; she exercised coquetry too much *en grand* to be called an ordinary coquette." She went to Lucien's soirées; they became intimate enough to exchange letters. In a recent sale of autographs (May 27, 1895) there were thirty-three letters from Lucien to Madame Récamier, full, says M. Charavay, who made the catalogue, of burning declarations and of incessant complaints of the coldness of Madame Récamier. M. Turquan gives the text of some of these letters.

It is clear, from all we know, that Madame Récamier offered to Lucien only her friendship in return for his love; that she was

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afraid to offend too bitterly the brother of the First Consul; and that the affairs of M. Récamier, whom she consulted, exacted some prudence on her part. Lucien was ardent, impatient; he broke with his "banquière," as he called her, and asked for his letters, which she refused to return. It became more difficult for her to enter into relations with the First Consul after she had interrupted her relations with Lucien. Bonaparte was, besides, informed that she opened her salon more and more to Moreau and Bernadotte, whom he considered as his enemies—her house was open to all foreigners, to the members of the diplomatic body—and she received an official hint which obliged her to give up her weekly receptions. It was at that time that the famous painter David made her portrait, which is now in the museum of the Louvre. She is represented half lying on a couch, with a gown which is a mere tunic, and with her feet bare. The head is of an exquisite purity of feature, but rather expressionless. M. Turquan, whose antipathy to Madame Récamier is almost amusing, will have it that she had ugly feet. David's portrait is very interesting, and will always be admired, as well as the portrait made afterwards by Gérard, when Madame Récamier was no longer in the bloom of youth.

After the peace of Amiens, Madame Récamier made a visit to London, and for several weeks the London papers were full of praise of the handsome Frenchwoman. Wherever she went she wore a veil *à l'Iphigénie*, which fell to the ground and enveloped her with a sort of ideal vapor. The arrest of Moreau caused a real terror among the familiar friends of Madame Récamier. She was a friend of Madame Moreau, and she had the courage to go to see her every day, to attend her husband's trial, and to salute him. Bonaparte was advised of it, and Cambacérès, by his order, sent her a letter inviting her not to return to the court. She obeyed, but persisted in going every day to console Madame Moreau. She was thus thrown more and more under the influence of her friends, the two Montmorencys. The execution of the Duke d'Enghien was a great shock to their feelings, as well as to hers.

After the proclamation of the Empire, which took place in May, 1804, the Emperor made up his household and his wife's. Fouché, who was an assiduous frequenter of Madame Récamier's salon, and whose policy at the time was to conciliate the *émigrés*, told her that she did very wrong in maintaining a hostile attitude, and finally offered her the place of lady to the Empress. The same offer was made to her by the Princess Caroline, a sister of the Emperor. These offers were repeated several times, and refused. Récamier's affairs were in a very bad state, and his wife's refusal did not help to lift him out of his difficulties. There was a great financial crisis at the end of 1805, and many people were ruined; Récamier's bank was able to weather the storm for a time, but in October, 1806, its failure was announced. An advance of a million or two to Récamier by the Bank of France would have prevented the failure, but it was not authorized, and when Junot mentioned it to Napoleon, he said, "I am not in love with Madame Récamier." Madame Récamier had to change her whole life. As if her ruin did not satisfy the vengeance of Fouché, he denounced her in his police reports as the incorrigible enemy of the Empire. She was not exiled, but when Madame de Staël, who had really been exiled in 1803, and was living at Coppet, on Lake Geneva, asked her to make her a visit, she gladly accepted the offer.

Coppet was always full of distinguished visitors, and among those whom Madame Récamier found there was Prince Augustus of Prussia, the son of Prince Ferdinand, a nephew of the great Frederick. Prince Augustus had been made a prisoner at Saalfeld, at the beginning of the campaign of 1806; he had been sent to Dijon, to Paris, to Nancy, to Soissons, where he remained till the autumn of 1807. He was then allowed to return to his country. Stopping at Geneva, he saw Madame de Staël at Coppet and accepted her hospitality. There he fell *in love with Madame Récamier at first* sight. He was tall, handsome, very shy, yet not so shy that he could not confess his passion. Forgetting that she was married, he offered her his hand. She thanked him for the great honor which he paid her, and told him that she was not free. He spoke of a divorce; she knew better than anybody that she had never had a religious marriage, and that M. Récamier's relations to her had never been anything but paternal. But could she forget the great kindness which he had always shown her? She could do nothing without his permission. She wrote to him; he answered her that he consented to the annulment of their marriage if such was decidedly her desire, but asked that the rupture should not take place in Paris, but out of France. He added that perhaps she had not sufficiently considered what her position would be in Prussia if she became the morganatic wife of Prince Augustus.

Madame Récamier was much perturbed on receiving this answer. M. Turquan, on the strength of an unpublished letter which was communicated to him, but which bears no date, and the authenticity of which does not seem to us demonstrated, will have it that for a moment she thought of committing suicide. It is rather curious that Madame de Staël was meditating an essay on suicide, which she published in 1812. Whatever may have been Madame Récamier's doubts, whatever her conversations with Madame de Staël, the situation ended by her refusing the offer of Prince Augustus. He wept copiously and left Coppet, while Madame Récamier returned to France. She sent the Prince a portrait of herself made by Gérard. They maintained a correspondence which no events could interrupt. They saw each other again only in Paris, when Prince Augustus came back to France with a victorious army, and afterwards, in 1818, at Aix-la-Chapelle, during the sitting of the Congress which took place there. At his death Gérard's portrait was returned to Madame Récamier. The Prince wished to be buried with the ring which she, in a moment of imprudence, had given him at Coppet. The long idyll of Madame Récamier and the Prince of Prussia is a romantic chapter in history. M. Turquan's account of it has no romantic touch; he is determined always to put the worst possible construction on what relates to his heroine. But the facts speak for themselves.

Madame Récamier returned to Paris at the end of October, 1807; it was at her home that Benjamin Constant gave the first reading of his novel 'Adolphe,' which is still read by many, as it is a real autobiography, an account of the relations which Benjamin Constant had for several years maintained with Madame de Staël. 'Adolphe' did not please Madame Récamier, and in his *journal intime* Benjamin Constant wrote, on the evening of the day when he had read his novel, "The character of the hero revolts them. Decidedly, they don't know how to understand me." The hero was himself. The seizure by the imperial police of all the printed copies of a new book by Madame de Staël, 'L'Allemagne,' was a great event in Madame Récamier's circle. M. de Montmorency was exiled. Madame Récamier received again an order to leave Paris. She went for a time to Châlons, and later established herself at Lyons, where she made the acquaintance of the philosopher Ballanche, who became one of her admirers and (it may almost be said) slaves. She left Lyons for Italy, stayed some time in Rome, where Ballanche joined her, and in Naples, where she was very well received by Murat and by Queen Caroline. Murat had just signed (January 11, 1814) a treaty with the court of Vienna, in which he engaged himself to detach his cause from that of Napoleon, and to furnish the allies an army of 30,000 men. Madame Récamier became rather unwillingly the confidante of the treason of Napoleon's sister and of the anxieties of his brother-in-law. She told him that she did not herself like Napoleon, but that he ought not to abandon him. It was too late; Murat showed her from the window the English fleet entering the Gulf of Naples.

Correspondence.

LORD MILNER AND THE DUTCH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Manhattan," in the *Evening Post*, criticising my last letter in the *Nation*, secs, in his British fervor, a great deal more in that letter than was really there. He makes me propose "that Great Britain should lead the way to peace by recalling Lord Milner, Lord Kitchener, and all others who are in any way objectionable to the Boers, and, if necessary, humbly suing for peace." I only said that, if peace was desired, it would be wise to withdraw with honor Lord Milner, who has pledged himself in effect to oppose any settlement but that which would enable him to set his foot on the necks of his enemies, the Dutch—an arrangement to which it appears that the Dutch inexorably demur. In Canada, after the rising of 1837, if the British Government had persisted in keeping Sir Francis Bond Head in power, it would have been long before the trouble would have subsided. Lord Durham, a stranger to the quarrel, was sent out to make peace, which he did with the happiest results, not only to the welfare of the colony, but to the interest and honor of the imperial country.

EQUITY.

April 8, 1902.

A BRITISH ACADEMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of April 10, pages

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287-8, there is an article by Prof. Ewald Flügel of Leland Stanford University, entitled "A British Academy," which, in my judgment, requires revision or modification in at least one essential feature. Professor Flügel is in error when he assumes that no one has anticipated his excellent and scholarly researches in regard to academies that have been proposed or contemplated in England, notably during the Queen Anne or Augustan era of our language. The subject is indirectly discussed in Prof. Henry Morley's 'First Sketch of English Literature' as well as in his 'English Writers,' and is incidentally referred to in the second part of Skeat's 'Principles of English Etymology,' chapter viii. What seems stranger than all is the fact that, in Dr. J. A. H. Murray's Romanes lecture, delivered at Oxford, June, 1900, and most admirably reviewed in the columns of the *Nation* of July 12 by your Oxford correspondent, there is a concise, lucid, and comprehensive presentation of the subject from the hand of the foremost living student of the evolution of English speech.

The present writer also devoted two chapters of his 'History of the English Language' (xxvi. and xxvii.) to the elucidation of this distinctive characteristic of our Augustan age. Dr. Flügel is "not the first That ever burst Into this silent sea," though not even the most malevolent critic can fail to concede the fidelity and the thoroughness of his investigation. I am sure that I need not recall to his consciousness Matthew Arnold's essay upon the "Literary Influence of Academies."

I am, yours sincerely,

H. E. SHEPHERD.

BALTIMORE, April 12, 1902.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' most important recent announcement is of an 'Anthology of Russian Literature,' to be edited in two volumes by Prof. Leo Wiener of Harvard University. It will give extracts, but more often complete productions, from writers exemplifying the whole range of Russian letters to the present time. Other works in preparation are 'A Political History of Slavery,' in two volumes, by William Henry Smith, a journalist of large experience; 'Life at West Point,' by H. Irving Hancock; and 'Spanish Life in Town and Country,' by L. Higgin. Add also 'Labor and Capital: A Discussion of the Relations of Employers and Employed,' by labor leaders and master employers, edited by the Rev. John P. Peters. The English translation of Chateaubriand's Memoirs which this firm has just commenced bringing out, will be in six volumes.

D. Appleton & Co.'s April output will include 'Prisoners of Russia,' by Dr. Benjamin Howard; 'Practical Forestry,' by Prof. John Gifford; and 'Those Delightful Americans,' by Mrs. Everard Cotes.

'Mosaics from India,' by Margaret B. Denning; 'Village Work in India,' by Norman Russell; and 'Primitive Semitic Religion of To-day,' by Prof. Dr. Samuel Ives Curtiss of the Chicago Theological Seminary, are in the press of Fleming H. Revell Co.

'Samoa 'Uma: Where Life is Different,' by Llewella Pierce Churchill, with illustrations, is to be published "by advance subscription" by Forest and Stream Publishing Company.

Miss Ellen M. Stone's hard experience is to be narrated by herself in a volume entitled 'Six Months among Macedonian Brigands,' to bear the imprint of McClure, Phillips & Co. It can hardly appear before the autumn.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will shortly publish 'The Building of Character,' by Booker T. Washington.

Tennant & Ward, No. 287 Fourth Avenue, New York, will publish in connection with John Murray a translation of the 'Sacrum Commercium Beati Francisci cum Domina Paupertate,' a thirteenth-century allegory. The rendering, biographical introduction, and appendices of 'The Lady Poverty' are from the hand of Montgomery Carmichael.

Following Yale's Centennial example, the University of Chicago will issue from its own Press a series of Decennial Publications in commemoration of that institution's first ten years of corporate existence. Eight of the ten volumes contemplated will represent original research by representative members of the faculty, beginning with 'The Velocity of Light,' by Prof. Albert A. Michelson.

A fresh crop of Baedeker's guide-books for the current year reaches us from Charles Scribner's Sons—'Southern Germany' in a ninth revised edition; and 'Great Britain' and 'Egypt' each in a fifth, the latter after only four years. They are, with all the increase and change of routes and time-tables and inns, which need periodic overhauling for the tourist, permanent books of reference in their framework. The face of a country remains unaltered save by some Manchester ship-canal or Nile dam, and the maps can never become wholly antiquated and worthless.

Doubleday, Page & Co.'s "Little Masterpieces," edited by Bliss Perry, increase by a half-dozen pocket volumes, prose selections from Bacon, from Swift, from Goldsmith, from Johnson, from Emerson; each with a good portrait frontispiece. The choice is excellent for its range; and where opportunity offers, autobiographical matter is included.

The George Newnes "thin-paper edition" of English classics, of which Messrs. Scribner have the American handling, adds Shakspere in three volumes and Burns in one. This series is for the side-pocket, and very convenient in its oblong shape, with attractive covers of flexible lambskin. The paper is not up to the perfection of the Oxford University Press's thinnest, but it is not too transparent for clear reading. The engraved title-pages and frontispieces are in the best of taste. In short, these are outputs to be commended.

The same Anglo-American publishers send us 'The International Students' Atlas of Modern Geography,' prepared under the direction of J. G. Bartholomew. After the contents, is exhibited a considerable list of foreign words entering into the composition of geographical names as affixes or prefixes; and this is succeeded by a chronological list of the significant world's explorers. An index closes the volume, in whose maps the British Empire is naturally best looked after. There are three and even four maps of the continents—orographical, geological, political, and for vegetation, and this treatment is sometimes extended to smaller divisions. The maps are clear and well executed.

From the Scribners we have also the seventeenth issue of 'Hazell's Annual,' for 1902 (revised to December 6, 1901). The character of this work is established beyond the need of praise or even description, but we observe that purchasers of the present edition are eligible to compete for ten prizes of from one to ten pounds by submitting lists of criticisms, corrections, and suggestions for future betterment. These must reach the Annual at No. 52 Long Acre, London, W. C., by June 30. We select for mention the chronicle of the Boer war for 1900, filling nearly ten pages, including the negotiations for peace with texts in full, and a list of British casualties to date. Under China, likewise, we have the peace protocol. What to call our outlying possessions has been sometimes disputed. Hazell treats of them as "Dependent Territories," beginning with Alaska. They demand a page and a half. The statement, under Wireless Telegraphy, that the electro-magnetic waves "can pass through rock masses and certain other intervening substances," is not one now subscribed to by Marconi, we believe. Important rubrics are Obituary and Literature; and noticeable is the Medical Summary, occupied chiefly with "the pandemic of plague" under which the world is still laboring. Quite new is the survey of the world's navies.

In honor of the Rev. Edward Everett Hale's eightieth birthday, just elapsed, the Outlook Company has published handsomely, in type so bold that it might be thought designed for children, his 'The Man Without a Country.' Though it has received a fresh certificate of beneficence from President Roosevelt, there are some who look upon it as the primer of Jingoism.

By a curious coincidence, the new (fourth) volume of the Transactions of the Mississippi Historical Society (Oxford, Miss.), contains a brief communication from Dr. Hale on "The Real Philip Nolan," a Southerner shown here in business relations with Gen. Wilkinson, Burr's accomplice and agent of Spain. Accompanying it is the translation of the record of the trial of several of Nolan's accomplices by the Spanish authorities in Texas, in 1801, the year in which Nolan met his death—and merited a statue in the Statuary Hall at Washington, according to Dr. Hale. There are several valuable papers relating to the legal status of slaves in Mississippi before the civil war, the war itself, the struggle over secession, and to reconstruction and the legal status of freedmen, in this volume of the Transactions.

The 'Diary and Correspondence of Count Axel Fersen,' translated and edited by Miss Wormeley, with ample explanatory intercalations, for the Versailles Historical Series (Hardy, Pratt & Co.), serves in many passages for the elucidation of the *vie de coulisse* of diplomacy during the wildest years of the French Revolution. The extreme simplicity of the Count's style intensifies, by its abruptness, such passages as the attempted escape of Louis XVI., the arrest at Varennes, and the financial wreck of the Government (p. 81). The introduction of explanatory matter gives continuity to the originally disjointed narrative.

The fifth volume of the 'Remarks and Collections of Thomas Hearne (Dec. 1, 1714

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—Dec. 31, 1716),' edited by D. W. Rannie, M.A. (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde), forms volume 42 of the Oxford Historical Society's publications, and continues the diary, notes, and correspondence of the famous Jacobite antiquary. It includes the memorable year of the first Jacobite rising, of which, however, Hearne takes less notice than we should have expected. Just at that time he was fully occupied with his political troubles with the Oxford authorities and his pertinacious struggle to hold on to his offices, or at least that of sub-librarian to the Bodleian. But he would not take the oaths, and the "vile Whiggs" at last ousted one of the most learned, if not one of the wisest, men in the University. In addition to a minute chronicle of the rather ludicrous phases of this squabble, the book has many references to Hearne's editorial labors on Alfred of Beverley and Titus Livius—not the glory of Patavium, but Livius Foro-Juliensis (a name which the reviewer is not ashamed to admit sent him to the Encyclopædia)—and is crammed with notices of forgotten old books and MSS., inscriptions, monuments, and other miscellaneous antiquarian lore. Epitaphs of course there are in plenty, including that famous one in Horsham, Sussex, beginning "Quod fuit esse quod est," etc., which we believe disputes the palm of unintelligibility with Aelia Laelia.

A second edition of Fletcher's 'History of Architecture on the Comparative Method' (Scribner) has recently appeared. Much new matter has been added, so that the pages now exceed five hundred. The chief addition to the letterpress is devoted to what are called, with singular inaptitude, "the non-historical styles," *i. e.*, Indian, Chinese, Japanese, and Saracenic architecture. The most important change in the make-up of the book is to be found in its 1,300 illustrations. These now consist of 128 half-tone plates of the chief edifices of the world, and 128 plates specially prepared for the book, each composed of sundry line drawings intended to show the principles of construction and the characteristic ornament of the several styles. The comparative method, as applied to the history of architecture, which in Fletcher's work reaches a high degree of specialization, consists in subjecting each of the important styles in turn to a searching analysis in regard, first, to surrounding influences, whether these be geographical, geological, climatic, religious, social, or political; second, to the peculiar architectural character which it developed; third, to its chief examples; and, fourth, to its structural system, examined under such headings as plan, walls, roofs, openings, columns, mouldings, or ornament. Such a system demands, from each style, answers to an identical series of questions, and these answers, being put in a readable form, constitute the book. Were one disposed to do so, he could easily point out inaccuracies of statement, lack of proportion in the component parts, and amusing insularity in the treatment. Since the book is an excellent one in many ways, it would be at best but an ungracious task to tear down a structure raised with such great pains. As a conspectus of the whole field of architecture, nothing else exists which compresses into such small space so many facts concerning the historic styles, presenting them by both text and illustration. Not the least useful part of the book is the bibliography with which the treatment of each of the several styles is ended.

C. Litton Falkiner gives us in collected form (Longmans, Green & Co.) eight 'Studies in Irish History and Biography,' contributed through late years to the *Edinburgh*, *Quarterly*, and other reviews and magazines. In their plan and scope they remind us of Mr. Lecky's 'Leaders of Public Opinion,' which, published anonymously forty years ago, attracted so much attention. They are written from a Unionist standpoint, ably, fairly, and thoughtfully; and in the presentation of new facts and fresh considerations contain much that is worthy the attention of students of Irish politics and Irish history. Home-Rulers as well as Unionists will be able to draw from them inferences favorable to their views. Turning over the pages of this freshly written and attractively printed book, we are once again impressed with the feeling how far off still is the time when to those vitally interested in Irish affairs it "will be pleasant to remember."

Professor MacMechan of Dalhousie University has added to his admirable edition of 'Sartor' an equally admirable one of 'Heroes and Hero-Worship' (Ginn & Co.). The extensive introduction is marvellously tightly packed with detail, picturesquely stated, and touched with the fervor which is of the good Carlylean faith. The picture of Carlyle's audience is especially vivid. The commentary is restrained but adequate. If any one desires to take 'Heroes' in historical seriousness, and is not content with it as a wonderful piece of English prose, this little book will stand by him faithfully.

It is pitiable to observe the stress laid upon air-space, moderate temperature, and uncontaminated and appropriate nourishment in discussing modes of relief for the serious and prevailing diarrhœa of children, because it is the unavoidable crowding, excessive and prolonged urban heat, and unsuitable if not decomposing food or none at all that lead to an annual slaughter of the innocents more causeless and cruel than Herod's. This is forcibly brought to mind in reading the third and enlarged edition of Dr. Louis Starr's 'Diseases of the Digestive Organs in Children' (Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co.), which we may not analyze, but only note, with general commendation for those interested in clinical medicine.

In 'Hygiene for Students' (Macmillan), Dr. E. F. Willoughby does not offer, as the name at first suggests, hygienic instruction for the student-class, but presents a handbook for students in hygiene, especially adapted to English conditions and English sanitary laws. Each chapter is followed by its summary, and groups of questions are material aids in fixing attention on the salient points of every subject. The text, fairly up to the latest knowledge, is non-technical, and should be perfectly intelligible to laymen. It is true that, as Englishmen are prone, the author at least once confounds Sir Douglas Galton and his cousin Francis (p. 219), and he wanders a little when, speaking of maize, he writes (p. 29): "In former days the slaves of the Southern States of North America flourished on a diet almost limited to it, with batatas and pineapples occasionally added."

The second edition of Rideal's 'Water and its Purification' (London: Lockwood; Philadelphia: Lippincott), has been revised and enlarged, and gives clear information and sound doctrine regarding the characteristics of natural waters and their analysis by chemical and bacteriological methods. On the purification of water by filtration the book needs further extension, as only 62 pages out of the total 346 are devoted to this subject, and these give no details of filter-bed construction. The divining-rod as an instrument for locating springs is described and illustrated, and the author justifies its use by a comparison with magnetism, saying that it is perfectly possible that such a rod may move under the "induction" of running water. On the whole, the book, compared with the best American works on the subject, appears at a disadvantage.

Newell's 'Irrigation in the United States' (New York: Crowell) is a well-written and well-illustrated volume, dealing with a subject which is yearly becoming more and more important throughout that extensive region once known as the Great American Desert. The methods of storing the water of streams and distributing it upon the farms, and the marvellous results that follow, are set forth in a manner intelligible to the public at large, technical details being generally avoided. The author, who is the hydraulic engineer of the United States Geological Survey, contends that the irrigation of the arid regions is the most important public work which the Government can undertake. Since private enterprise has already utilized nearly the whole available stream flow during the irrigation seasons, the work of the Government must be mainly in the direction of constructing reservoirs for the storage of the flood waters. The fact that these reservoirs will cost large sums of money is well known to engineers, but the author dwells only upon the glorious development which will result. It is fair to say, however, that these arguments are not obtrusively set forth throughout the book, which is an excellent one for the general reader, as it gives in condensed form information scattered through many Government reports.

The third volume of 'The Engineering Index,' covering the years 1896-1900 (New York: *Engineering Magazine*), contains 1,030 large octavo pages, closely printed in double-column. It gives the titles of papers appearing in about 350 technical periodicals, with descriptive notes regarding the scope of the papers and the number of words in each. The general headings are subdivided into minor ones, and cross-references are frequently given. The classification and typography are excellent, and the entire volume is a good example of indexing carefully done on a comprehensive plan.

A timely publication in D. C. Heath & Co.'s "Modern Language Series" is Fulda's play, "Der Talisman," of which our readers have heard much lately. Professor Prettyman of Dickinson College supplies the introduction and notes, and reproduces Andersen's tale, "The Emperor's New Clothes," in German, as the basis of the drama.

Two unique impressions of Franklin's "Advice to a Young Tradesman" are the theme of Mr. Worthington Ford's paper in the March *Bibliographer* (Dodd, Mead & Co.). The one is owned by the British Museum,

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and was printed in Philadelphia by Daniel Humphreys, about 1750, as the Museum authorities conjecture (the date of composition being 1748); but Mr. Ford demonstrates the improbability of this printer's name having been attached to any production before 1784. He ceased printing in Philadelphia in 1811. The other impression is now in the possession of the Boston Public Library, and it appears to have issued from the press of Benjamin Mecom, a nephew of Franklin, between 1758 and 1762. One conclusive consideration against the date 1750 for the Museum broadside is the modernization of the typography, in the matter both of capitalization and of punctuation, as compared with Mecom's. Mr. Ford does not make use of this argument, but any printer would employ it, and would, we think, infer a nineteenth-century date rather than an eighteenth. This agrees with Mr. Ford's noticing that the word "necessary" prefixed to "Hints to those that would be Rich" (from *Poor Richard*), which Humphreys added to the "Advice," by way of filling out his sheet, is first found in a London edition of *Poor Richard* dated 1805—six years before Humphreys quitted printing.

The International Congress of Historical Sciences that was to have been held at Rome under the auspices of the King of Italy, has been postponed for some reason, but not abandoned, as may shortly appear.

—It is well to call attention occasionally to the growing abuses of public printing at Washington. We have before us a copy of Senate Document No. 137, of the present Congress, entitled "Some Reasons for Chinese Exclusion." It has no indication of having been presented to the Senate, as no member of that body stands sponsor for it. The title-page expressly says, "Published by the American Federation of Labor," and the reader is requested to address the Federation for "further information." A poor caricature, and thirty pages of poor reading matter, with an introduction containing a touch of apology—this is in no sense a public document, but has been foisted upon the Government Printing-Office to secure a low cost of printing and the privilege of sending it free (franked) through the mails.

—Those who have occasion to use the public documents issued by Congress will welcome any assistance in the form of a reasonably complete, systematic, and intelligent list. It is not possible to arrive at completeness, for no single collection of United States documents is complete; and a coöperative list can take no account of what escapes its compilers. The sorry results of Poore's scheme were discouraging; and the efforts of individual cataloguers to make good his omissions have been partial and unsatisfactory. The Superintendent of Public Documents now grapples with the problem, and the first of a three-volume list is ready for distribution. It bears the title, "Tables of and Annotated Index to the Congressional Series of United States Public Documents," and covers the issues of the Fifteenth to the Fifty-second Congress. The documents of the first fourteen Congresses will be treated in a separate volume, as will the publications of departments, bureaus, and other offices of the Government, printed without Congressional numbers. Beginning with the Fifty-third Congress, the existing lists of the Superintendent of Public Documents cover the field. When the three volumes are completed, they and the annual list will afford a serviceable index to this great collection of public documents, and far better than any that has yet been prepared. It is understood that Mr. William L. Post prepared this index under the Superintendent's direction, though his name nowhere appears in the volume.

—So far as trial has been made of it, we find the Index convenient, not too elaborate, and yet full for the great items. By adopting the serial numbers first suggested by Dr. Ames and carried into effect by Mr. Crandall, reference to any volume is a simple matter, doing away with the clumsy jargon of Poore, with its complicated references to Congress, session, description of document, and number. By the side of the earlier systems the serial number is simplicity itself. Mr. Post's indexes will show the location of each of the annual reports of a department or bureau from the first issue—a great gain in itself. When it comes to a more complicated subject, the treatment is not so clear or satisfactory. The title "Tariff," for example, must be supplemented by "Duties," "Revenue," "Customs," and others, and cross-references are not always given. Under "Army" and "Navy" the arrangement is more simple, and clearly develops the advantages of the present Index. After a long experience in handling these documents, the present writer can but feel that no index will be entirely competent, since the inquirer so often approaches his subject with a hazy idea of what he wants, and an unwillingness to undertake the drudgery of spelling his way through the mass of material offered. Mr. Post's work is, however, a distinct improvement on former lists.

—In Scudder's Life of Lowell, at p. 103 of volume ii., there is quoted, without comment, from a private letter of the poet's (about 1867-8), an astonishingly mistaken affirmation that "Shakspere does not tack his 'lesses' to nouns, but to verbs. . . . I admit that *less* ought to be joined to a noun (as in German *los* always is), but I think one may sin with Shakspere or Milton." We say nothing of the German portion of this statement, though the form *leblos*, lifeless, occurs to us as at least requiring explanation; but five minutes with Mary Cowden Clarke would have shown that, aside from all equivocal examples, Shakspere uses beardless, eyeless, faultless, headless, heartless, lifeless, peerless, sightless, worthless, etc. Milton has "causeless suffering," "eyeless in Gaza," "fearless, unfeared," "loveless harlots," "numberless offences," "remediless doom," etc. In the April instalment (Leisureness—Lief) of the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde) Mr. Henry Bradley has a note on the suffix -less, showing that it was originally attached to substantives to form adjectives in a privative sense. In many instances the substantive "was a noun of action, coincident in form with the stem of a related verb, and some of the adjectives so formed had the sense 'not to be ——ed,' 'un- ——able,' as in *countless, numberless*. On the supposed analogy of these words, the suffix has been appended to many verbs, as in *abashless*," etc. Another suffix, -let, which is confined to substantives, was slow to prove its serviceability, but is now very active. "From the first half of the eighteenth century we have *streamlet* (Thomson), from near the end of it, *cloudlet, leaflet*." "It is now perhaps the most frequent of diminutive endings." The verb *let* demands many pages. We will instance only its restriction, in the once general sense of 'cause to,' to the verb *know*. A dwindling development is also curiously manifested in the case of the adjective *lewd*, from meaning 'lay, non-clerical,' in the translation of Bede's 'Historia Ecclesiastica' (890), to 'lascivious,' in Chaucer (1386), and now this alone. The intermediate stages were 'unlearned,' socially 'common, low, vulgar, base,' 'ill-bred,' 'bad, evil, unprincipled' (persons and things), 'unchaste.' In the large proportion of obsolete words here gathered together, we cannot, if we would, expect to recall *librar, librarian,* or *librarier* for 'bookseller'; but the versifier may regret this. It would not, on the contrary, require great boldness even in prose to reëmploy *level* in the sense of 'aim, calculate, design,' as in "levelled to destroy the Constitution."

—A difference in English and American usage appears in the accentuation of *levee* (a reception). "All our [Dictionary's] verse quotations place the stress on the first syllable. In England this is the court pronunciation, and prevails in educated use." Walker's stressing on the final syllable "is occasionally heard in Great Britain, and appears to be generally preferred in the United States." Our American derivatives *licensable* and *licensure* afford, says Mr. Bradley, some argument for differentiating the verb *license* from the noun *licence*, in addition to analogy (as, *practice practise, prophecy prophesy*, etc.), "although the spelling *licence* is etymologically unobjectionable." "Recent dictionaries, however, almost universally have *license*, both for substantive and verb, either without alternative or in the first place." Some Philadelphian, from his "Northern Liberties," might have furnished an American quotation for *liberties*—"of a city: the district, extending beyond the bounds of the city, which is subject to the control of the municipal authority." Per contra, the invasion of England by Americanisms is manifested in several instances, and it is apparent that British safety lies solely in shutting eyes to them. Before the last century, *lengthy* was employed only by Americans, notably by the fathers of the Revolution, including our first three Presidents and Thomas Paine. In a fatal moment, the *British Critic* (1793) objected to the word as coming from across seas; of course Southey takes it up (1812), and Bentham (1816). *Lengthily*, likewise, used by Jefferson in 1787, was banned by *Blackwood* forty years later, when it must have been insidiously making its way. Naturally, George Eliot adopts it in 1866, and now it is "hands all around." We could say more of this interesting if thin number of the Dictionary, but we will conclude by noticing the remark that *lex* (*talionis*) is no longer declined according to the context. We shall see, some years hence, what will be said of *statu* (*quo*) in this particular.

—On February 22 the eminent physician Adolf Kussmaul, who for forty years was professor of clinical medicine in different German universities, celebrated his eightieth birthday at Heidelberg, where he has lived in retirement since 1895. Additional interest is given to this anniversary by the

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recent publication of the octogenarian's youthful reminiscences in a volume entitled 'Jugenderinnerungen einer alten Arztes' (Stuttgart: Bonz & Co.). This autobiography is not only an exceedingly entertaining record of a remarkable career, but also a valuable contribution to the history of the evolution of academic instruction and scientific research, especially in the department of medicine, during the first half of the nineteenth century. Kussmaul's father began life as a poor Suabian peasant boy, and rose to the position of a very capable country doctor with a high average of general culture, gentlemanly manners and fine social qualities rare in a person of such an origin. The son inherited these traits of character, as well as a predilection for the healing art, which he was able to foster under more favorable conditions. His name Kussmaul (Kissmouth, or, more literally, Kissmuzzle) did not tend to promote his advancement, and never failed to excite the astonishment and hilarity of his North German colleagues and acquaintances. As a student he bid in at an auction a volume of Béranger's 'Chansons,' and, on mentioning his name, was rebuked by the auctioneer for indulging in ill-timed jests. In Baden and Alsatia, family names implying osculation are by no means uncommon. It is said that at a ball in Carlsruhe the three most prominent persons present were two gentlemen, Kuss and Kussmaul, and a young lady named Küsswieder (Kissagain). When urged by a friend to change his name, he refused to do so, on the ground that few persons could show such an ancient and illustrious pedigree as his, averring that it could be traced back fifteen centuries to the famous Oribasius, physician in ordinary to Julian the Apostate, who, after the Emperor's death, suffered banishment and took refuge among the Goths on the Danube, where he was called Kussmaul. This fictitious etymology was accepted as a good joke even by philologists. Kussmaul's humor found expression in genial verses written before his exclusive devotion to science; these were afterwards printed for his friends as 'The Puerile Poetic Pecadillos of Dr. Oribasius,' and several are published in his autobiography.

—The Dutch have been celebrating the hundredth anniversary (March 24) of the birthday of Jacob van Lennep, who has often been called the Walter Scott of Holland. Sprung from a family already renowned in learning and the law, Jacob became also a lawyer, achieved fame and had an extensive practice, but, like our Oliver Wendell Holmes, he had an avocation in literature. In 1829, at twenty-seven, he published his first novel, 'The Adopted Son,' and a work on the national legends, following these in 1830 by two comedies, "The Frontier Village" and "The Village over the Frontier." His knowledge of the English language was extraordinary, and his translations of Shakspere, Byron, and Tennyson are strong and felicitous. Foreigners suppose that Sir Walter Scott was both his inspirer and model, but he himself ascribed the impulse to romance to his Swiss governess, Madame Wägeli. Of his romantic works, the translations in English have been, besides the books named above, 'The Rose of Decama,' 'The Abduction,' and others. In his excursions in the field of romance, he went so far afield as Venice, Turkey, Java, and the South Seas, writing tragedies, comedies, and operas which enjoyed great favor upon the stage. He spent some years upon a critical edition of Vondel's writings. The works by which he will in all probability be best remembered, are the historical novels illustrating the mediæval history of the northern Netherlands. Most valuable to the library of the student are his antiquarian writings, especially his superbly illustrated essay, in six volumes, upon the Castles of the Netherlands, upon which he wrought in conjunction with his friend Hofdijk and with the coöperation of able artists. This not only shows a great deal of exact painstaking investigation, but is penetrated throughout with brilliant imagination, and forms a wonderful window into the past. A Liberal in politics, Van Lennep died at Oosterbeek in 1868, a generation before the "monster verbond" (as he named the political compact between the Calvinists and Roman Catholics) had triumphed at the polls.

—Prof. Finnur Jónsson of Copenhagen has just finished the third and last volume of his 'History of the Old Norwegian and Old Icelandic Literature,' of which the first part of volume one appeared in 1893. This work is, beyond comparison, the most complete and exhaustive treatment of the subject thus far published. The literature from its earliest inception in Eddic and Scaldic poetry (about the year 850), through sagas, laws, translations, and reproductions down to about the year 1450, is embraced in three volumes—the first, in three parts amounting to 650 pages; the second, in five parts of 1,009 pages; and the third, in one part of 126 pages. The disparity in size is due to the fact that the first two volumes deal with the productive periods of the literature, while the last volume treats of a period which was to a large extent characterized by a merely mechanical reproduction. It may cause surprise that a subject so abstruse as Icelandic literature would seem to us to be, should have a sufficient number of devotees, even among Scandinavian book-buyers, to warrant any publisher bringing out a work of such dimensions. The fact is, however, that Denmark is the happy possessor of a fund, called the Carlsberg Fund, endowed by the well-known patron of literature and art, the brewer Jacobsen, in its scope somewhat similar to the recently endowed Carnegie Fund in Washington. By this means the work has been enabled to see the light.

—It has already occasioned several monographs in opposition. Thus, Prof. Bugge of Christiania has earnestly disputed the author's acceptance of the Icelandic tradition as a reliable guide in judging the age of the oldest Norwegian scalds, none of whom Bugge believes to be older than the tenth century, whereas tradition carries them up to the middle of the ninth. Bugge's chief argument is taken from the linguistic characteristics of these poets, their use of foreign words of Celtic and Romance origin, etc.—characteristics which presuppose an extensive intercourse between the Norsemen and their western and southern neighbors. The dispute cannot as yet be said to have been authoritatively settled. Another moot point is Jónsson's localization of the Eddic poems. Whereas Vigfusson and, more recently, Bugge have held the opinion that these poems were, with perhaps one or two exceptions, produced in the Norwegian settlements in the Western Isles, Jónsson has come to the conclusion that their home is for the greater part to be sought for in Norway proper, and, for a couple of the poems, in the Icelandic colony in Greenland. Previous works dealing with old Norse and old Icelandic literature had become more or less antiquated, besides laboring under other defects, such as excessive partiality due to patriotism, etc. Professor Jónsson has aimed at completeness, thoroughness, and an objective treatment.

BRINKLEY'S JAPAN.

Oriental Series: Japan and China. In twelve volumes. Vols. I.-IV.: Japan, its History, Arts and Literature. By Captain F. Brinkley. Boston and Tokyo: J. B. Millet Co.

A work like this in four volumes, the product of ripe scholarship and the unremitting industry of thirty years or more of life in Japan by one long since recognized as an authority, deserves more space than our limits will allow. The present handsomely printed edition is copiously illustrated with wood engravings, photographic reproductions, and brightly colored pictures, which, nevertheless, do not in the main correspond nor altogether harmonize with the seriousness of the text. The writing is that of a master of a great subject. He treats his theme with dignity, profundity, ease, and attractiveness. The pictures, on the other hand, are almost wholly of modern things with which the tourist is familiar. Many of them are commonplace because of their great familiarity. The exceptions are the state interiors and excellent costumes historically correct. From the artistic side one might suppose this publication to be for the parlor table, whereas it is worthy of the library of the severest critic, except that the literary apparatus is of the most meagre sort. It is to be hoped that the same work, properly considered for the student and general reader who cannot purchase the more expensive edition, will be prepared.

While so many persons are writing upon Japan, most of them with only ordinary knowledge, and some with conceit of shallowest information, it is well to have the personality of this author set forth, in order that the value of his work may be known. In the late sixties, when the disturbed condition of Japan made the British Government think it necessary to land armed forces in a camp at Yokohama and to keep them there for several years, Capt. Brinkley, an artillery officer, instead of devoting himself to the fascinations of Japanese nature and humanity, gave himself to the study of the language, art, and native learning with a thoroughness known to few besides "the three great lights of Japanese scholarship"—Satow, Aston, and Chamberlain—to whom he dedicates his work. It is not too much to say that the "lights" are four, and Brinkley is one. Others might excel in linguistics, art, belles-lettres, or in the special phases of a subject whose richness is a constant surprise, but it is safe to say that probably no one living has covered so thoroughly the whole ground of Japanese achievement, from prehistoric days to the assassination

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of Hoshi Toru. Our guide handles with ready familiarity and firm touch every subject which he brings before us. His style is pleasing, and such mistakes in the text as we have been able to find are manifest slips of penman or printer. The transliteration of Japanese words is that of an accurate scholar. Wherein the author seems blind or purposely omissive, is in not giving to modern external influences their deserved credit. Knowing how thoroughly the American teachers in Japan not only trained up many of the men now most active and influential in Japanese politics in the spirit and practice of the deliberative assembly, which was unknown in Japan until they came, it seems absurd to make no reference to these potencies. The American reader will also find that almost all the references to his own country are sinister, and, if ever complimentary, of microscopic dimensions. The "Tammany Hall boss" we know, but the "scheister" ascribed to America seems to have been made in Germany. Pretty much all the "modern instances" are English, rather even than British, revealing the author's limitations.

The author quite rarely quotes from any other writer, having perhaps little need to do so; but his bald statement that "Griffin" —a misprint for the author of 'The Mikado's Empire'—"was content to think that they [the Japanese] are modern Ainu," is not just to that writer, especially as another critic of equal eminence finds fault with the same American for deriving the Japanese from Malaysia. Capt. Brinkley, like most modest investigators, concedes the fact "that the Japanese are not a pure race. They present several easily distinguishable types, notably the patrician and the plebeian." Indeed, the Japanese are a very mixed race, and "the theory which seems to fit the facts best is that the Japanese are compounded of elements from central and southern Asia." The conquering immigrants arrived by way of Korea, though they were neither Koreans nor Chinese, while the south Asian immigrants drifted to Japan from the Philippine region and below, along the strange current called The Black Tide.

At the end of each volume the author gives in an appendix several pages of notes and references, all of them very interesting, and showing fulness and nicety in scholarship. Concerning the mythology which the educated intelligent Japanese resolves not to scrutinize too closely, it is hardly a correct intimation that "neither a Colenso nor a Huxley has yet arisen to attack [it] publicly," for it is a fact which, in the light of scholarship and of Japanese professions of intellectual liberality, is not at all creditable, that a native professor in the Imperial University was, not so long ago, first officially silenced and then retired for venturing to criticise the mythology on which theories of government still current were based. Capt. Brinkley himself (p. 81) suggests that written "history" in Japan began only when books and writings reached the continent. Those Japanese who became scholars, found in Chinese history, when its pages were first opened for their inspection, an explanation of the Japanese nation's origin. In all probability, the first historiographers in Nippon derived the idea of an "age of the gods" and of a divinely descended emperor from the stories found in the Chinese fabulists. In other words, just as the first European settlers of America brought to this continent the old-world myths of the Amazons, the Seven Cities, and the Antilles, and roamed westward chasing the shadows of their own fancy, so the first Japanese users of writing took continental fiction, and gave it a local habitation and new names. They invented that great system of mythology out of which has emerged the serviceable political doctrine that the Japanese emperors, being of divine origin, rule by heavenly right—a doctrine incorporated in the preamble and first article of the Constitution of the Empire. On the official text of a "line of emperors unbroken for ages eternal," the Marquis Ito, in his famous Commentaries, sets forth this notion gravely and with intensest dogmatism, in apparently childlike faith. And this, though the 'Nihongi' (Chronicles of Japan), composed 720 A. D., shows repeatedly transparent imitations, and even extended copying, of ancient Chinese writings.

It is Capt. Brinkley's method to omit purposely the details of battles and sieges, and give a social, intellectual, and literary history. In volume i. he treats of the primeval Japanese, Japan on the verge of history, the early eras, and, most felicitously and luminously, of that wonderful epoch of Nara (709-784), when Buddhism was the new teacher and nurse of civilization. The Hei-an epoch lasted from the eighth to the middle of the twelfth century, when Kioto was the capital, the centre of all refining influences and civil power, when the Fujiwara nobles ruled the court, while the Minamoto and Taira generals were asserting Imperialism, and carrying the bounds of the empire to the farthest islands. No author has yet treated this period with such consummate ability and grace.

Volume ii. is devoted to military life and the military epoch, in which civil life, so splendid in the capital, formed its own code, and in which elegance in art, costume, literature reached among the nobles (*kugé*) the highest pitch, while the military families (*buké*) were in the field and on the frontiers devoting themselves to arms, armor, and physical training without letters. The nation was, in fact, divided into three factions, the court nobles, the military families, and the priests. The æsthetic tendencies and delight in nature and art were as manifest, though in smaller compass, as now, among the Japanese. Of the manners and customs, the weapons and operations of war, the refinements and pastimes of the military epoch, Capt. Brinkley writes with the exactness of an expert. He expounds in one chapter the Bushi-do, the warrior's way, or code of chivalry, unwritten, indeed, but mightily influencing Japan in the twentieth century, and making her people unique among Asian nations. Indeed, the aim of government since 1868 has been to lift up the whole nation into knightly ideals and privileges, and this is the secret of the morale of its sailors and soldiers.

The subject of the military classes is continued in the third volume, which, however, is mainly devoted to the splendid era of the Tokugawas, from rise to fall. In the fourth and concluding volume, the author handles with masterly power every subject likely to interest an inquirer into the springs of life and action; and the secrets of Japanese potency. He treats of the court, manners and customs, and of criminal procedure and criminal classes, and every page of his text shows familiarity with both recondite sources, standard fiction, and popular notions. The chapter on personal liberty, justice, slavery, and checks of vice, corrects many shallow Western notions about the Japanese, and proves the earnestness of the statesmen of the Tokugawa times, who, within the limits of their knowledge and possibilities, strove manfully to solve social problems.

The movements of the native religions, Buddhism and Shinto, and the influence of philosophy are finely set forth, ponderated and measured. The work closes with a chapter on Méiji, or the era of enlightened government, in which the story, from 1868 to the fall of the last Ito cabinet, is told by one who seems to hold all the threads, weaving them into a bright texture, rich in color, which corresponds to the pattern of reality. Probably no other foreigner living has a keener insight and closer understanding of Japanese parties and politics, of which the former as yet are built on persons rather than on ideas or principles. The author is eminently judicial, sparing neither severity of language nor hearty appreciation. He awards high meed of praise to the great constructive statesmen, and understands well the motives of their noisy detractors. He does not hesitate to lay open the abysses of sensualism and the barbarism that prevailed in days gone by, and that still exist under the name of civilization, while showing the great ability of this nation that "adopts nothing but adapts everything."

It is clear from this long view of Japan's evolution that, from the very first, the Japanese have been ready to try experiments. They have always been willing to learn, and have ever proved themselves apt pupils. Even Buddhism, essentially a creed of compromises, in grafting other faiths upon its own system rather than seeking to uproot them, has helped the Japanese to adapt themselves docilely to radical changes, and to become expert in adjustment and compromise. It has thus been solidly serviceable to the Japanese in their modern career. On the other hand, the moral limpness of such a creed, inducing weakness of moral fibre, may explain why Japanese enterprise often seems to flag on the threshold of attainment. It is perhaps Buddhism, also, that has taught in the people a patience almost unlimited, inducing the profoundest faith in time. As we all know, in the story of the Forty-seven Ronins, the marked victim, just when he ought to have been sleeplessly vigilant, supposed his enemy had abandoned the field altogether. On the contrary, the victim found him waiting at his post, the result being that his own head soon decorated the tomb of the avenged, where a perpetual decoration day is kept amid perfume and homage. What the Japanese cannot gain through collision he will often attain by sheer insistence.

MAHAN'S TYPES OF NAVAL OFFICERS.

Types of Naval Officers. By Capt. A. T. Mahan, United States Navy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1901.

The American reader will naturally ask why Capt. Mahan should have thought that the lives of the six British admirals, selected as types of the naval officer, needed

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to be rewritten and subjected to comparative analysis. The answer to this query will doubtless be found in the author's desire to complete his treatment of the great subject of sea power (especially in the eighteenth century), begun in his initial work and illuminated in broad outlines by his Life of Nelson, but still requiring that detailed elucidation which Hawke and Rodney, Howe and Jervis, Saumarez and Pellew, through their characters and deeds, seemed best adapted to furnish.

In the present volume are described the changes in naval warfare which, introduced by Hawke, galvanized into vigorous activity the British navy, then moss-grown and suffering from the dry-rot of formal Fighting Instructions that cost poor Mathews whatever of reputation he possessed, and Byng his life itself. Fifty years later, these changes reached a magnificent culmination under the genius of Nelson. Nowhere else, by the way, has Byng's action off Minorca in 1756 been made so clear to the layman; nowhere else has Mathews's action in 1744 been so ably analyzed. If any demonstration were needed of the folly of laying down minute regulations as to how to engage an enemy, and of attempting, by Governmental order, to eliminate personal initiative, these pages should suffice. The apparently incidental discussion of the difference between "errors of conduct" and "errors of judgment" was evidently written with one eye turned towards the wretched Schley matter—a circumstance which somewhat lessens its weight. We are still too near that dreadful subject to gain a just perspective.

Few naval heroes are so inspiring as Hawke (Mahan's first type), whose career is almost unrivalled in its lack of incidents to regret. He came first into prominence in Mathews's action, when, breaking with the old traditions and the Fighting Instructions, he boldly captured the Spanish *Poder*, after having severely crippled the *Neptuno*. The story of his victory over Conflans in Quiberon Bay in 1759 is one of the most dramatic in naval history. From Horace Walpole it extorted this unwilling tribute:

"It was the 20th of November; the shortness of the day prevented the total demolition of the enemy; but neither darkness nor a dreadful tempest that ensued could call off Sir Edward Hawke from pursuing his blow. The roaring of the elements was redoubled by the thunder from our ships; and both concurred in that scene of horror to put a period to the navy and the hopes of France."

Hawke's greatest feat was, unquestionably, the establishing and maintaining of an efficient blockade of the French naval port of Brest, "prolonged through six months of closest watching, into the period of the winter gales, in face of which it had been hitherto thought impossible to keep the sea with heavy ships massed in fleets." This policy afterwards, under St. Vincent, had no small share in wrecking Napoleon's scheme of universal dominion.

Capt. Mahan's treatment of Rodney's character and career is especially commendable, for Rodney's was not a simple nature like Hawke's, but complex in the extreme. To Americans Rodney is of surpassing interest. It was his distinction to see with the eye of the strategist, and to assume great responsibilities in obedience to his sense of duty. By his coming from the West Indies in 1780 (without orders) to North America, and assuming general command, the well-laid plans of Washington were brought to naught and our War of Independence prolonged. The approval of this action by his Government is a splendid tribute: "It is impossible for us to have a superior fleet in every part, and unless our commanders-in-chief will take the great line, as you do, and consider the King's whole dominions as under their care, our enemies must find us unprepared somewhere, and carry their point against us." Rodney's professional reputation is based on his defeat of Langara, an action whose circumstances lose little even in comparison with Hawke's fierce onslaught at Quiberon, on his affair with De Guichen off Martinique in 1780, wherein the fruits of victory were lost through the incompetence of some of his subordinates, and on his battle with De Grasse on April 12, 1782. The less pleasing side of his disposition is shown in his reluctance to leave the spoils of St. Eustatia, which he gathered to the extent of £3,000,000, and in his failure to press home his advantage after De Grasse and the French flagship had been captured. "What he had won, he had won; what more he might and should do, he would not see, nor would he risk." He had grave personal faults, which were not generous like Nelson's, and which were increased by the financial straits in which the greater part of his life was passed. We think Capt. Mahan has not sufficiently appreciated the exceptional capacity in strategy displayed by the only Englishman of his day who, like Washington alone on our side, grasped the situation, and realized that upon naval supremacy hung the issue of our struggle for independence.

Like all other writers in their turn, Mahan has fallen a victim to the engaging personality of Lord Howe, that warm-hearted, bluff, and capable sailor. Howe was a close student of his profession in a faithful and dogged way, but he certainly was not brilliant. To read about him is to be inevitably drawn towards him in affection. He could not bear the thought of fighting the colonists in 1778—a circumstance which Americans are not likely to forget; and the very kindliness of his nature caused the one conspicuous failure in his career. Said Admiral Codrington: "It was want of discipline which led to the discontent and mutiny in the Channel fleet. Lord Howe got rid of the mutiny by granting the men all they asked; but discipline was not restored until the ships most remarkable for misconduct had been, one after the other, placed under the command of Lord St. Vincent."

Lord Howe has always been accepted as a tactician, but his operations against D'Estaing, off our own coast, which brought despair into American hearts in 1778, were more characterized by an unexpected energy in the refitting of Byron's storm-tossed reinforcement than by evolutions; while his great fight of the "First of June," 1794, was waged, in spite of himself, on the traditional lines of ship to ship. Although the prior manœuvres in this campaign compare favorably with Rodney's striving to wrest the weather gauge from De Guichen, nevertheless Howe's reputation is based chiefly upon his well-known and constant study. Conditions beyond his control forbade his ever demonstrating in a skilful sea fight how great was his real mastery over this branch of naval science.

No navy ever produced an abler "all-around" officer than John Jervis, Lord St. Vincent. His influence upon the British fleet cannot be measured. He licked it into shape, and he made of it the instrument which eventually wrought the downfall of Napoleon. His victory off Cape St. Vincent in 1797, fifteen ships against twenty-seven, gained him fame and an earldom. "A victory is very essential to England at this moment," he said, as the Spaniards came out of the fog. When the mutinies in the Channel Fleet, which Howe had sought to allay rather than to crush, extended to the vessels off Cadiz, St. Vincent stood like a rock. He rejected the suggestion that suspicious letters should not be delivered, with this grim comment: "Should any disturbance arise, the Commander-in-chief will know how to repress it." He made the mutinous crew of the *Marlborough* man the yard-arm whips to hang two of their shipmates, condemned to death, although their captain feared they would refuse to obey his orders. "Do you mean to tell me, Captain Ellison, that you cannot *command* his Majesty's ship the *Marlborough?* for if that is the case, sir, I will immediately send on board an officer who can." The men were hanged and in the manner St. Vincent had prescribed. "The law was satisfied, and, said Lord St. Vincent at the moment, perhaps one of the greatest of his life, 'Discipline is preserved, sir!'" He was conspicuous for the care of the health of his men, "by instructed sanitary measures, by provision of suitable diet, and by well-ordered hospital service"; it "was his proudest boast among the services to which he laid claim." "To St. Vincent, more than to any one man, is due the enforcement and maintenance" of Hawke's system of blockade; "and in this sense . . . he is fairly and fully entitled to be considered the organizer of ultimate victory." Stern in his conception of duty, rigid in exacting all the forms of professional etiquette, inflexible in determination, and merciless towards the incompetent, he was generous in his praise for faithful and honorable service, and he bound men to him by a devotion in which professional respect went hand in hand with personal esteem. Among British admirals he ranks second only to Nelson.

Admiral Lord de Saumarez appears to have been a man of singularly balanced character, and to have exhibited a rare combination of physical, mental, and moral attractions. Handsome in person, of exceptional ability, he was as brave as Hawke, a better seaman than Nelson, and as close a student of his profession as Howe. His ship was always noted for efficiency, for contentment at a time when the fleet was infected with mutiny—a contentment shown by the fact that his crew followed him from vessel to vessel as long as they were permitted to do so. His best work was as a squadron commander. He was next in rank to Nelson at the Nile, and he did notable duty at Brest, anchoring at will close in shore and just clear of the range of the French batteries. "With you there," wrote St. Vincent, "I sleep as sound as if I had the key of Brest in my pocket." Fate denied him the full measure of opportunity when in chief command, although his last fight was a brilliant victory against heavy odds, and after a reverse which would have disheartened a less determined and self-reliant officer. A sort of mystery of pathos seems to cloud his relations with Nelson, between whom and him-

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self there was loyalty and respect, but never warm friendship.

Lord Exmouth's largest operation was the bombardment of Algiers in 1816. He had refused additional vessels, pressed upon him by the Admiralty, accepting complete responsibility for the outcome of his plans; and he distributed his small force with so much skill that he broke for ever the spirit and the power of the piratical Dey. This was the professional culmination of a life full of hairbreadth escapes, foolhardy adventures, instances of cool pluck and marvellous presence of mind, of stubborn fighting and daring seamanship, which cast fiction quite into the shade. His scarcely challenged superiority as a sailor brought him safely through dangers which would have wrecked almost any other captain. From his sailing in 1775, as Midshipman Pellew, on board the *Blonde*, which carried Burgoyne to our shores, he passed from one thrilling episode to another. In Canada; on Lake Champlain, where he distinguished himself against Benedict Arnold (no light task), to share Burgoyne's fate at Saratoga; in command of a frigate on the coast of France; commander-in-chief in the East Indies and the Mediterranean, he is almost as picturesque a character as our own even more brilliant Paul Jones.

We cannot refrain from expressing the hope that Capt. Mahan will take up a few native types that seem to need his friendly ministrations, and do that justice which only his talents can compel to some of his compatriots and predecessors, such as Barney, Biddle, Decatur, Morris, Perry, Foote, Cushing. His own Life of Farragut might well be rewritten in the light of his wider knowledge and larger experience. May we add that it would be well if our author shunned the blandishments of a rhetorical temptress, who makes him at times involved and obscure? "There was prefigured the ultimate predominance of the traditions of the English-speaking races throughout this continent, which in our own momentous period stands mediator between the two ancient and contrasted civilizations of Europe, that so long moved apart, but are now brought into close, if not threatening contact"—is a sentence typical of Capt. Mahan's occasional strayings from a generally lucid style. What it means, he doubtless knows, but the reader can only surmise.

The Great Persian War and its Preliminaries: A Study of the Evidence, Literary and Topographical. By G. B. Grundy. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

This volume treats of the relations between Greece and the Eastern nations—especially Persia—from the rise of the Lydian kingdom to the end of the year 479 B.C. The first twelve chapters discuss the events in their order; the thirteenth sums up the war as a whole; and the final chapter is devoted to Herodotus as the historian of the conflict. The analysis of the sources and method of Herodotus is sound and sufficiently detailed for the purpose. The author concludes that Herodotus is remarkably accurate in his statements of fact, but lacks information as to personal motives. Although Mr. Grundy claims this as the result of his own investigation, the judgment, with more or less modification, applies to nearly all extant classical historians, and is, in fact, the first thing to be noticed in the criticism of these authors. It may not be well known in England or America, but to the German scholar it is as familiar as the alphabet.

In citing his sources, Mr. Grundy should have mentioned book and chapter. If the reader is to be won to a new point of view by the authority, for instance, of Aristophanes, he has a right to know what particular passage is to effect this mental change. Perhaps Mr. Grundy could not conveniently supply the information; but vague impressions from studies pursued long ago are not enough for scholarly purposes. As to modern authorities, the author admits that he does not know from whom he has borrowed or to what extent. "I cannot acknowledge the written sources of assistance to which I have had recourse in compiling this volume, because I cannot recall the whole of a course of reading which has extended over a period of ten years." Oxford ought to teach a more systematic method of reading and research. In a work of this kind, it is unfortunate that the reader should be denied the advantage of knowing how far the author is indebted to his predecessors. Mr. Grundy should have made it clear that he is working in a field already well mapped out by others. H. Delbrück ('Die Perserkriege und Burgunderkriege,' 1887), began the careful, scientific study of the military affairs of this period. It is an epoch-making work, to which those who now write on the subject are consciously or unconsciously under great obligations. Mr. Grundy cites the work two or three times, only to differ from the author. He says, too, that he has read Busolt, but makes no reference to special passages. In cases in which he differs from historians of the first rank like Busolt, it would have been better to compare views, and to show why his own should be preferred.

The subject-matter is both political and military. The political narrative, however, is superficial and one-sided; the author's peculiar views of men and of parties are not well sustained by facts. For instance, he assumes that, in the period ending with the battle of Marathon, the democrats at Athens were intriguing with Persia, and that this victory was a defeat for the party. His assumption explains nothing, and is self-contradictory. The political history of the period is presented far better by Holm, Busolt, and Meyer.

The chief feature of the book, however, is the military narrative. To prepare himself for this part of his task the author first learned the art of surveying, and then, going to Greece, examined carefully the topography of battlefields, roads, and passes. In some cases he has drawn plans based upon personal surveys. His diligence and zeal in this difficult work are admirable. The maps and topographical discussions are an important contribution to the history of the war between Greece and Persia, and are highly appreciated by scholars: "Ueber die Topographie," says E. Meyer, "ist grundlegend die sehr gründliche Untersuchung von Grundy, The Topography of the Battle of Platææ, 1894, mit vortrefflicher Karte." This material will doubtless be of great service in rewriting the history of the war. The task is not for the mere classical student, however, but for one who has at once a thorough knowledge of military affairs and a constructive genius. It would certainly be unwise to assume that Mr. Grundy's reconstruction of the period is final, or is distinctly better than that, for instance, of E. Meyer, 'Geschichte des Altertums,' iii (1901).

In point of fact, recent writers have left our knowledge of the battles of the war and of the size of the armies in a deplorable condition. We do not know, for instance, whether at Marathon the Athenians were posted on Mount Agrieliki (Meyer), or high up in the valley of the Avlona (Grundy); whether the battle was fought in that valley (Delbrück) or in the plain (Grundy); or whether the Greeks (Busolt) or the Persians (Grundy) stood on the defensive. The estimates of the Persian force range from ten thousand to sixty thousand. There are as great differences as to the size of Xerxes's army. Delbrück estimates it at 65-75,000, Meyer at 100,000, Busolt (following Niebuhr) at 300,000, and Grundy at half a million. The reasoning of any one of these writers might convince us, were it not for the equally cogent arguments of the others. Mr. Grundy's reasoning is the least satisfactory. He assumes that any number less than half a million would be too small in view of the vast resources and thorough organization of the Persian empire. But thereupon he marvels at the great ability of the Persian Government which could bring so vast a host into Greece and maintain it there so long in excellent condition. Interesting in this connection is Meyer's remark that Antiochus the Great, who ruled an empire nearly as large as the Persian, could muster at Magnesia hardly more than seventy thousand men. A writer who wishes his own view to prevail must undertake the disagreeable task of refuting opposing views. So far from attempting this line of procedure, Mr. Grundy leaves it uncertain whether he is acquainted with recent literature in the field. But if he has settled nothing, at least he has raised a number of interesting questions, and has suggested many new views of the relations between events; and, most important of all, his geographical knowledge will illuminate the whole history of the period which he treats.

London Afternoons: Chapters on the Social Life, Architecture, and Records of the Great City and its Neighbourhood. By W. J. Loftie. Brentano's.

There is no need for Mr. Loftie to apologize for adding to the list of books on London this delightful volume. It is not wholly about London, seeing that, for some reason which has escaped us, Mr. Loftie includes chapters on Berkhampstead, Tring, Guildford, and King's Langley. Mr. Loftie has for more than a quarter of a century studied old London, both in its monuments and in its records, and in this book he gives us the cream of his studies. We have chapters on London five centuries ago, and at the beginning of the century just ended; on Newgate, St. Paul's, Old and New; the older city churches, and on other subjects scarcely less interesting. Perhaps that on the older city churches will be found most interesting by the majority of readers. American visitors should know that the best time to

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view these edifices is on Saturday afternoons, when they are being prepared for the services of the morrow. The bustle of the city has then in great part subsided, and the functionary who looks after the church is to be found—not, as at other times, when a long search has perhaps to be made to get the keys of the church. A visit should also be made to one of the less important churches on a Sunday morning. We know no more striking contrast than that between the roar and turmoil of the city on a week-day and the unspeakable calm of a morning service in one of these deserted churches in a deserted city. Then there are at some of them quaint occasional services, like the "flower sermons," when the old sleepy church blossoms out into a gay show of flowers. Most curious is the service at St. Katherine Cree, in Leadenhall Street, on October 16, when the "Lion Sermon" is preached, in remembrance of the delivery of a worthy Alderman from a lion as he was traversing the desert with a caravan. The lessons, the psalms, the text are chosen for their references to lions. This church is additionally interesting on two accounts—it is believed to be the work of Inigo Jones, and it is also believed that here the great painter Holbein found his last resting-place. Neither point is well established; Mr. Loftie examines both, and in each case, we are glad to find, pronounces in favor of the tradition. St. Olave's, Hart Street, is another church of great interest. It is one of the few which escaped the Great Fire, and here lies buried Samuel Pepys, the author of the famous Diary.

Another interesting chapter is that on the ancient rivers of London, now imprisoned as underground sewers. Times are changed since the old chronicler Fitzstephen could write of the excellent springs round London, especially on the northern side, that they were "visited as well by the scholars from the schools as by the youth of the city, when they go out to take the air in the summer evenings." The only remembrance of these pleasant streams now to be discovered above ground is the name of a street, half of it shorn away by the Metropolitan Railway. One may still read the name, Turnmill Street, from the Turnmill Brook—so called "for that divers mills were erected upon it, as appeareth by a fair register-book, containing the foundation of the Priory at Clerkenwell." Mr. Loftie follows for us the course of the Hole-Bourne—dismissing Stow's derivation of the name Holborn from Old-Bourne—the Lang-Bourne, the Ty-Bourne, the West-Bourne, and other ancient streams.

Although Mr. Loftie has to condemn many of Stow's derivations, he has, as might be expected from so earnest and learned a student of Old London, a great veneration for London's greatest historian. In writing of St. Andrew Undershaft, which contains Stow's monument, he writes: "John Stow, the historian of London, occupies a unique position among the authors of the great Elizabethan age. Little, indeed, should we know of the appearance of London before the Fire were it not for his descriptions. . . . In reading his book one has to remember that his guesses are as erroneous as those of any of his contemporaries; but when he quotes an ancient document, or narrates a fact of his own knowledge, he may be depended upon as absolutely accurate." Stow's 'Survay of London' is indeed a book the product of marvellous industry; but it is more than this. It is one of those books that create feelings of personal affection for the writer. No better tribute to Stow could be paid than to reprint the text of his great work, copiously indexed and annotated, so as to give the best results of the research into ancient documents—a research which, as Mr. Loftie reminds us, was neglected from Stow's days till our own time.

We cannot have everything in a volume of 300 pages, but we wish that Mr. Loftie could have given us a chapter on the Charterhouse. With its history, as a monastery, the palace of a great nobleman, and finally as a hospital and school, it is almost the most interesting relic of Old London, and no one could have told us its story better than Mr. Loftie. The book has many illustrations, some of them reproductions, others original. Of the latter, we like best that of the angel in the vestry of St. Olave's Church, Hart Street, the church at which Pepys was wont to worship.

Premières Années. Par Jules Simon. Paris: Ernest Flammarion.

These memoirs of Jules Simon, edited by his two sons, cover the period of childhood and early manhood, to the year 1848, which was the thirty-fourth of his life. Readers familiar with the writer's earlier volumes of memoirs ('Mémoires des Autres,' etc.) will need no word of encouragement to take up this new posthumous volume. They will find here the same charming style, and also, in spite of the greater prominence of the writer's own personality, that abundance of anecdote which, dealing largely with men well known in public life, gives the book a semi-historical character. This feature, we presume, will be even more marked in another volume, 'Le Soir de ma Journée,' which, we are glad to know, is to follow the present one.

Meanwhile, strange though it may seem, the description of life in an out-of-the-way village in Brittany during the Restoration, the *milieu* in which several years of Jules Simon's childhood were spent, is fascinating. There was neither a notary, nor a school-teacher, nor a physician at Saint-Jean-Brévelay. The people hardly knew that there were physicians in the world. The peasants spoke only Breton, and were illiterate almost without exception. They were Royalists because the priests bade them be. (The insurrection of the Chouans had also been the work of the priests.) The great event of each year was the representation of a passion play or some other religious tragedy of the most realistic type, in which the boy Jules played the part of an angel. His family, however, was not of the same low level as the rest of the population. They had moved to the village from Lorient, and Jules's mother, though she had but a "fort mince bagage," taught him reading and writing, as well as the use of figures. She was his only teacher in his childhood, for the father scarcely ever spoke to the members of his family, and spent most of his time fishing in the brook. But the precocious boy found books, a motley collection, and reading became his dominant passion. He read 'Robinson Crusoe' many times with delight, but did not stop short at 'L'Esprit des Lois.' He also found many volumes of novels, and, having read them against his mother's will, relieved his heart of the burden of this transgression at his first confession, at the age of ten.

Speaking of these early years, Jules Simon complains less of the poor instruction he received than of his isolation. He had no schoolmates till he entered the college at Lorient, which he soon after exchanged for that of Vannes, where he became a boarding pupil. He speaks of this school as "a poor and ignorant family," and of the teachers, whom he loved and who loved him, as "those excellent people [who] are the cause of my never having known anything. For one cannot repair one's education; it is a mistake to believe that one can. I suffer daily from the ignorance which I owe to them, and I shall be grateful to them for it all my life." His family had in some way been totally ruined, and, aside from the poor instruction, he had to contend with material hardships which would have discouraged a boy of less energetic temperament. Nevertheless, he succeeded in being admitted to the École Normale in Paris, of which Cousin was then the leading spirit. This unexpected success made him the "happiest man in creation," though it took him a long time to overcome the defects of his previous training, which, he says, he received a hundred and fifty years before his comrades at the École Normale.

Looking back upon this period of student life, after an interval of fifty years, he calls it his "real life." He had, since then, published thirty volumes and written articles enough to fill a hundred volumes more; he had been professor in the École Normale and at the Sorbonne; had represented successively four departments in the Assembly; had been Councillor of State and Minister; at the time of writing, he was Senator for life. He had been a member of academies and of numberless societies, and had addressed countless meetings in the departments and in the capital. All these varied activities fatigue, exhaust him. "Qu'est-ce que cela," he exclaims, "auprès de la vie véritable, auprès de ma vie d'il y a cinquante ans!"

After spending three years in study at the École Normale and two in teaching in the colleges of Caen and Versailles, Jules Simon suddenly lost his position through a whim of Cousin's, and, having spent most of his income in assisting his family, found himself *sur le pavé*. An article on the "School of Alexandria," contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, saved him from starvation. He continued to write for the *Revue*, and, not long after, Cousin had him appointed his substitute, and, in 1839, at the age of twenty-five, he became professor of philosophy at the Sorbonne—a position which proved a great disadvantage to him five or six years later, during his first political campaign in Brittany, as a candidate for election to the Chambers. What hurt his prospects more, however, was a false report, spread by his opponents, that he was not a native of Brittany. As most of his electors could not read French, they were easily duped by a priest, who held under their noses a written statement establishing beyond question Simon's birth at Lorient, but understood by them to declare the very opposite—possibly because they were not aware that Lorient was in Brittany. He was defeated by three votes. The story

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of this election in Brittany, involving personal visits to the 263 electors, in midwinter, and in a country district whose abominable roads were often impassable even for horses, is told with delightful humor, and reads much more like a novel than like real history.

Jules Simon became a Deputy three years later, in 1848. He was now thirty-three, and had already become acquainted with or won the friendship of many men of note. In the final chapter of the volume, "La Révolution de 1848," he refers to several of these, always without bitterness, using sarcasm never, irony occasionally, humor frequently—the humor of a man of generous disposition, of great wisdom, and of noble principles. It is thus that he speaks of the popularity of Lamartine and of Louis Blanc: "Each of the great leaders had his court. Lamartine's was the most numerous, Louis Blanc's the most noisy." When Lamartine showed himself, "the women vied with each other in their eagerness to kiss his hand. He was neither surprised nor moved, thinking that matters had resumed their ordinary course, and that an antique chorus naturally belonged to Tyrtæus." With Louis Blanc it was different. "There was no kissing of hands; his friends insisted upon carrying him on their shoulders. It was not comfortable for him, but he submitted, out of patriotism."

The Apostles' Creed. By Prof. S. C. McGiffert. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The old Roman Symbol from which, by accretions, grew the so-called Apostles' Creed in its present form, is discussed in this volume with independence and thoroughness. The more popular presentation of the author's views is given in a lecture first delivered at the Harvard University Summer School of Theology in July, 1899. But the positions therein stated are reinforced by critical notes, which form the body of the work.

The textual discussion is full, and rendered more valuable by accurate citations from the authorities. The date assigned to the original form is the third quarter of the second century, and the Roman origin is regarded as proved. But the main contribution of the author respects its purpose. Here he opposes both Harnack and Kattenbusch—a hopeful sign for American scholarship. The contention is that the symbol was framed as a baptismal formula, but specifically in opposition to the teachings of Marcion, then causing so much trouble at Rome. Every phrase is discussed in its bearing on this purpose, and a very strong case is made in favor of this view. The argument in regard to the relation of the Symbol to the Baptismal Formula (Matt. 28:19) is not so convincing. Dr. McGiffert thinks that the original formula was: "Into the name of the Father, and of Jesus Christ, and of the Holy Spirit"; the second reference being to the Incarnate Redeemer. Such a form did exist in early times, but it is hazardous to suggest that the form in Matthew "is perhaps due to the influence of the Johannine type of thought"; for the Johannine writings, so far as a polemic purpose appears, are directed against the denial of the Incarnation. Moreover, there are no textual variations to indicate any modification of the formula in Matthew, and modern criticism, as a rule, finds no Johannine influence in Matthew's Gospel, but emphasizes the dissimilarity of the two types.

A brief but sufficient statement of the present text of the Apostles' Creed closes the volume. Here are indicated the sources of the various additions. The author properly dismisses summarily the legend that the apostles respectively contributed the several articles of the creed.

The Speckled Brook Trout (Salvelinus Fontinalis). By Various Experts with Rod and Reel. Edited and illustrated by Louis Rhead, with an introduction by Charles Hallock. New York: R. H. Russell.

This is a collection of unrelated articles, largely on the subject of brook trout. Some of them have been published before, notably two out of the three from the pen of Charles Hallock, who has also contributed some verses, called the "Baptism of the Brook Trout," which will not add to the well-established reputation of the author for his accurate knowledge as to fish and his ability to express it. The late Nelson Cheney is represented by an excellent article on "Trout Propagation," from the State report, and Mr. W. C. Harris and *Town Topics* by interesting chapters on "The Habits of the Trout" and "The Old and the New Adirondacks." Illustrating this part of the book are reproductions of two old photographs, showing "Bartlett's Sportsman's Home, Saranac Lake," and "Paul Smith's"—on the St. Regis, both taken in 1873. These will awaken early recollections in many a frequenter of the Adirondacks. The chapter by E. D. T. Chambers on "The Big Trout of the Nepigon, Lake Edward, Lake Batiscan, etc.," is well written, and gives information, which will be new to most readers, about the best trout-fishing district in the world, in the Province of Quebec, among the mountains of the Laurentian chain—Lake Edward, for instance, where, during the last of August and the whole of September, trout of from two and one-half to seven pounds rise freely to the fly in the outlet, and Lake Batiscan, half way between Quebec and Lake St. John. In describing these, Mr. Chambers fills two pages with the scores of anglers who apparently had no trouble in catching quantities of trout from four to ten pounds in weight.

Mr. Rhead devotes eight pages to "Notes on Cooking Brook Trout," which doubtless convey much useful information to such as are going to the remote regions where good trout-fishing is to be had, and also can take with them the various culinary accessories mentioned by the editor. Mr. Rhead, however, is entitled to unstinted praise for the artistic arrangement of the book; from the paper wrapper in which it is sold, and which reveals, when taken off, a cover in exquisite imitation of birch bark, with half-a-dozen flies scattered over its surface, so well done that they seem fit for immediate use in angling; for the numerous illustrations, head-pieces, tail-pieces, full-page drawings, etc., all so good and lifelike that one may excuse the fact of many of them bearing no relation whatever to the adjacent text. There is a large-paper edition of the book which should be even more worthy of preservation than the ordinary one under notice.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Baptist Year-Book, 1902. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. 25 cents.
Arkwith, E. H. An Introduction to the Thessalonian Epistles. Macmillan. $1.25.
Baldwin, J. M. Fragments in Philosophy and Science. Scribners. $2.50.
Boethius's Consolation of Philosophy. (The Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Bourget, Paul. Monica, and Other Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Brady, C. T. Hohenzollern. Century Co. $1.50.
Brooks, Hildegard. The Master of Caxton. Scribners. $1.50.
Carnegie, Andrew. The Empire of Business. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Chaytor, H. J. The Troubadours of Dante. Henry Frowde. $1.90.
Coleridge, E. H. The Works of Lord Byron. Vol. V.: Poetry. London: John Murray; New York: Scribners. $2.
Conway, W. M. The Domain of Art. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Denison, Louisa E. Fifty Years at East Brent; The Letters of George Anthony Denison, 1845-1896. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Einstein, Lewis. The Italian Renaissance in England. The Columbia University Press. Macmillan. $1.50.
Fletcher, W. I., and Bowker, R. R. The Annual Literary Index, 1901. Publishers' Weekly.
Fosdick, J. W. The Honor of the Braxtons. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Fredericksen, N. C. Finland: Its Public and Private Economy. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.
Frost, T. G. A Treatise on Guaranty Insurance. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Fry, H. B. Little Italy. R. H. Russell.
Gordon, G. B. The Hieroglyphic Stairway: Ruins of Copan. Cambridge (Mass.): Peabody Museum.
Grenell, Z. The Sandals; A Tale of Palestine. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 40 cents.
Hamilton-King, Harriet E. The Hours of the Passion, and Other Poems. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Harland, Henry. The Lady Paramount. John Lane. $1.50.
Herbert B. Adams: Tributes of Friends. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press.
Herkless, J. Hebrews, and the Epistles General of Peter, James, and Jude. (Temple Bible.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Hiatt, Charles. Westminster Abbey. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Hopkins, E. M. The Proceedings of the Webster Centennial (Dartmouth College). Hanover (N. H.): Dartmouth College. $1.50.
Hoyt, Eleanor. The Misdemeanors of Nancy. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Hughes, R. E. Schools at Home and Abroad. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton.
Hugues-Krafft. A travers le Turkestan Russe. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Latimer, Elizabeth W. The Prince Incognito. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Macdougal, D. T. Elementary Plant Physiology. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.20.
Mackenzie, J. S. Outlines of Metaphysics. Macmillan. $1.10.
Macnab, Frances. A Ride in Morocco among Believers and Traders. London: Edward Arnold; New York, Longmans, Green & Co.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. Sister Beatrice, and Ardiane and Barbe Bleue. (Translated by Bernard Miall.) Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20.
Manning, Marie. Lord Alingham, Bankrupt. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
McIlvaine, J. H. St. Francis of Assisi. Dodd, Mead & Co. 85 cents.
Paget, Stephen. Selected Essays and Addresses by Sir James Paget. Longmans, Green & Co.
Partridge, W. O. Nathan Hale, the Ideal Patriot. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.
Patterson, Virginia S. Dickey Downy: The Autobiography of a Bird. Philadelphia: A. J. Rowland.
Payne, W. M. (1) Little Leaders, (2) Editorial Echoes. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Pemberton, T. E. Ellen Terry and her Sisters. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Quiller-Couch, A. T. The Westcotes. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. $1.
Robertson, Harrison. The Opponents. Scribners. $1.50.
Röthlisberger-Bern, Ernst. Gesetze über das Urheberrecht in allen Ländern. Leipzig: G. Hedeler.
Schurman, J. G. Philippine Affairs. New ed. Scribners.
Sears, Hamblen. None but the Brave. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Shaw, Adèle M. The Coast of Freedom. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Sommerville, Maxwell. Engraved Gems. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle. $1.50.
Studies in Honor of Basil L. Gildersleeve. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press.
Thackeray, W. M. Henry Esmond. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Tuckwell, W. A. W. Kinglake. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Turk, M. H. Selections from De Quincey. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Twain, Mark. A Double-Barrelled Detective Story. Harpers. $1.50.
Van Vorst, Marie. Philip Longstreth. Harpers. $1.50.
Westcott, B. F. Words of Faith and Hope. Macmillan. $1.25.
Wheelock, Irene G. Nestlings of Forest and Marsh. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Wilson, J. G. The Presidents of the United States. D. Appleton & Co.
Wood-Martin, W. G. Traces of the Elder Faiths of Ireland. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co.
Year-Book of the Pennsylvania Society of New York. Published by the Society.

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